DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 296 935 SO 019 183

AUTHOR Barker, Bruce, Comp; Christian, Duane, Comp.
TITLE A Collection of Teaching Units about Japan for Secondary Social Studies Teachers.
INSTITUTION Texas Tech Univ., Lubbock. Coll. of Education.
PUB DATE Jan 88
NOTE 126p.; A product of the Southwest Program for Teaching about Japan. Some pages may not reproduce well due to marginal legibility.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - General (020) -- Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Foreign Countries; Instructional Materials; *Lesson Plans; Resource Units; Secondary Education; *Social Studies; Teacher Developed Materials; Units of Study
IDENTIFIERS *Japan

ABSTRACT

This document contains a collection of eight selected secondary level units of study about Japan. Individual units were planned and written by teachers who participated in the first Southwest Program for Teaching about Japan (SPTAJ) study tour to that country during 1987. Unit topics include: (1) "An Introduction To Japanese Medicine" (G. Adams); (2) "Music of Japan: A Cultural Experience" (S. Hamm); (3) "Japan: Using the Atlas and the Almanac" (E. Gillum); (4) "What Do You Know about Japan and U.S. Influence on Japan?" (J. Huff); (5) "Three Japanese Maps" (R. Wiltse); (6) "The Occupation of Japan 1945-1952" (M. Cardenas; G. Garza); (7) "The Atomic Bomb--1945" (B. Barker); and (8) "What's What in the Japanese Economy and What Did It Have To Do with the United States of America?" (L. Oliverson). Most of the units contain: (1) an introduction; (2) background materials; (3) a resource list; (4) lesson plans; and (5) supplementary materials. Charts, pictures, and maps are included. (JHP)

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A COLLECTION OF TEACHING UNITS ABOUT JAPAN FOR SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
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January 1988

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THE SOUTHWEST PROGRAM FOR TEACHING ABOUT JAPAN

This report is a compilation of selected secondary level teaching units about Japan which were planned and written by high school teachers from Texas and Oklahoma who participated in the first Southwest Program for Teaching About Japan (SPTAJ) study tour to Japan during June and July 1987.

In November of 1986, the College of Education at Texas Tech University received a three year grant from the United States--Japan Foundation for $338,230 to establish the SPTAJ. The purpose of the project is to establish a program at Texas Tech which focuses on: (1) selection and dissemination of curriculum materials related to Japanese culture; (2) inservice training aimed at improving and enriching social studies content and strategies for teaching about Japan in selected schools in Texas, Oklahoma, and Louisiana; and, (3) providing liaison and linkage between the SPTAJ project and other similiar programs in the United States.

Without question, SPTAJ's highlight activity during the first year of operation was our tour to Japan from June 18 through July 3. A total of 16 secondary teachers from Texas and Oklahoma were selected to participate, and they were accompanied by three project staff (teachers from Lousiana will be included in the 1988 study tour). Prior to traveling to Japan, we conducted a nine day workshop on the Texas Tech University campus which was intended to prepare the teachers for their in-country travel experience. Topics for the summer workshop focused on Japanese culture, life, history, politics, and arts and crafts. The workshop was held from June 5 through June 13.

Workshop presentors included faculty and staff from Texas Tech University's Colleges of Education, Arts and Sciences, and Business Administration. These were individuals who either had extensive experience in Japan or knowledge and experience in studying foreign cultures. Teachers attending the workshops were kept very involved with extensive reading assignments, reviewing educational films on Japan, studying Japanese words and phrases, observing and participating in Japanese customs, listening to workshop presentors, and completing assignments ssociated with individual workshop sessions. Extensive media and print resource materials were acquired from the Japanese Consulate in Houston, from Nippon Steel Corporation in Houston and Los Angeles, from the Midwest Program for Teaching About Japan at Indiana University, and from Stanford University's Bay Area Global Education Program.

Among the assignments given to teachers attending the workshop was to plan a two to three hour teaching unit on a topic of their choice related to Japan. Included in this report is a compilation of some of the better "teaching units" that were developed. We share them here with the hope that they will be replicated and used by teachers elsewhere who are interested in teaching their students more about the land and the people of Japan.

In the Table of Contents, on the following page, we have provided the name of the teacher who developed their respective teaching unit and the location of their current teaching assignment. Within each of the teaching units included in this report, the teachers have indicated the original resource/reference material from which they planned their materials and to which interested readers can refer for further information.

A COLLECTION OF TEACHING UNITS ABOUT JAPAN FOR SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

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MEDICINE

An Introduction to Japanese Medicine

A Teaching Unit for Secondary Social Studies Teachers

Prepared by
Gayle Adams

Southwest Program for Teaching About Japan

College of Education, Box 4560

Texas Tech University

Lubbock, Texas 79409

June 12, 1987

An Introduction to Japanese Medicine

Unit Introduction

There are many medical systmes in Japan today; however only "Kanpo" and biomedicome exist as formal systems. The practitioners are educated and trained as professionals. The primary treatments involved with "Kanpo" are herbal and animal medicine, acupuncture, moxibustion, and shiatsu or massage. Biomedicine, of course, is the modern day scientific and technologically advanced system. The people accept both systems. A great deal of faith is placed in the ancient ways of "kanpo". Indeed, these ancient ways are gaining acceptance in may areas of the west.

The overall purpose of this two to three day study unit is to acquaint students with some of the special features of medicine in the Japanese culture. Individually, each of these features is practiced in other cultures. In Japan they have been combined and synthesized to create a unique system found only in Japan.

The first lesson will introduce the student to "kanpo". The second lesson will examine the modern medical pluralism which exists in Japan today.

Outline: Japanese Medicine

Lesson I.

- Acupuncture, Moxibastion, Herbal, Massage Treatments
- Charts, readings, toe massage, group work

Lesson II.

- Religious healing, biomedical system
- hospitalization (sociocultural viewpoint)
- charts, readings. Comparison/contrast with United States

An Introduction to Japanese Medicine

Unit Introduction

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The first lesson will introduce the student to "Kanpo". The second lesson will examine the modern medical pluralism which exists in Japan today. The aspects of this pluralism to be explore as an integral complex system are "Kanpo," biomedicine and religion. Note: These lessons are most effectively taught after a study of Japanese religions.

Resources:

Basic materials and instructional strategies for the two lessons are included; however if more intensive study is desired, the following sources are advised:

Illness and Culture in Contemporary Japan, by Emiko Ohnuki-Teirney, (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1984).

Acupuncture, by Marc Duke, (Pyramid House, New York, 1972).

Acupuncture Manual S. U. Chu, M. D., Samuel D. J. Yeh, M.D. Sc. D., and Denise D. Wood (Marcel Dekken, Inc., New York, 1979).

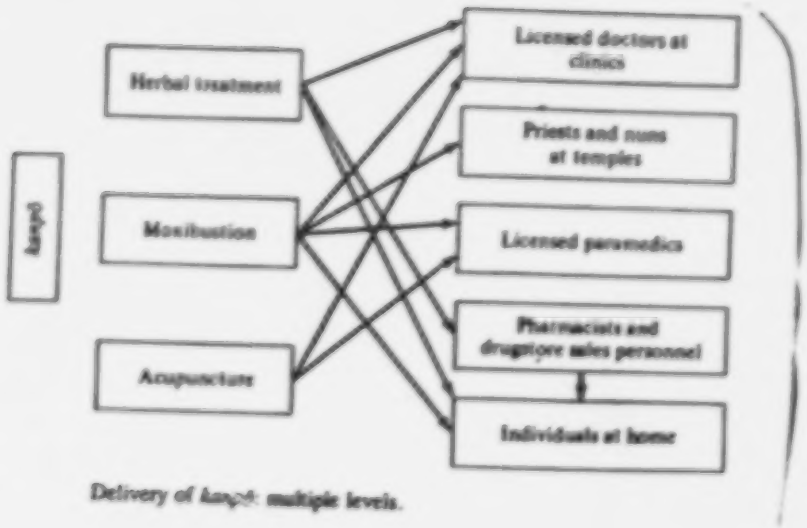
All-Japan: The Catalogue of Everything Japanese. Introduction by Oliver Statler Quarto Marketing Ltd. New York, 1984).

Lesson 1: Traditional Japanese Medicine

Introduction to Teacher:

"Kanpo" is the traditional Japanese System of medicine which originated in China. It principally includes the specialties of acupuncture, moxibustion, massage, and herbal pharmacopia. The Japanese system of today has been changed from the original Chinese system. "Kanpo" is used in conjunction with biomedicine.

All aspects of "Kanpo" except acupuncture are practiced by individuals in the home. They are regarded as an integral part of a person's health maintenance practice. There are a number of levels of practitioner as the chart below indicates.



Delivery of Kanpo: multiple levels.

The emphasis of the "kanpo" system is on the treatment of symptoms. The doctor diagnoses the patient's problem in four ways:

1. Observation (boshin) - color, texture of facial complesion, eyes, nose, ears, hair, teeth and excreta (special emphasis on tongue).
2. Listening (bushin) - voice, breathing, coughing. Also, smell of body odor and excreta.
3. Questioning (monshin) - history of illness, bodily, habits, feeling of thirst, taste preference, sleeping habits.
4. Touching (seeshin) - reading pulse, touch body parts to determine condition.

In addition the doctor must determine if the patient has a strong or weak constitution in order to properly prescribe treatment. The type of treatment is also affected by the enviroment in which a person lives.

"Kanpo" treatment is aimed at the removal of all symptoms. One or more of the specialities may be used. "Kanpo" has proved vital in the role of health maintenance and preventive medicine.

Objectives:

Cognitive: Students will be able to describe the four basic treatments involved in "kanpo," traditional Japanese Medicine.
Psychomotor: Students will apply a massage technique on themselves.
Affective: The students will be able to identify with and respect another culture's customs after comparing them to their own.

Advance Preparation:

-Read the entire unit. Select those activities most applicable to the grade level and sophistication of the student population.
-Copy revelent items/make transparencies.
-Determine the introductry setting. Possibilities are:
   a. Purchase a tape of classical Japanese music to be played as students enter the room.
   b. Wear a Kimona styled robe (a pattern is included).
   c. Burn incense and lower lighting in the classroom.
   d. Project transparency of acupuncture patient.
-Cut butcher paper for students to sit on the floor.

Instructional Activities:

1. Using one or more of the suggested introductory settings, prepare the students for study
2. Divide students into groups of four to five to identify home remedies for illness used in their own homes or within their ethnicity.
3. Large group discussion of remedies, list each on the chalkboard.
4. Teacher introduction to "kanpo" using the teacher introductory material.
5. Students and teacher read orally "Reading I." List Japanese herbal treatments which correspond to remedies listed on the chalkboard.
6. Class orally read "Reading II." Use the transparencies of acupuncture patients and acupuncture zones to emphasize the magnitude and complexity of acupuncture and moxibustion.
7. Have students sit on the floor on the cut butcher paper. You may want to play more music to emphasize the need for quiet movement.

Ask "Who likes to have their backs massaged?" Allow time for feedback, expecially pull out how they prefer back rubs to be given. Point out that some of the techniques such as Karate chop movememts are part of the next aspect of "kanpo." Read aloud "Reading III" on "Massage."

8. Have the students sit with their legs folded. If you can demonstrate the lotus, do so. The students will need to have at least one foot on top of one leg in order to practice the toe massage. Model the toe rotation massage as described in the reading (next to last paragraph) for the students. Now have the students participate. Ask "How does that feel?" "Why might this help someone?"
9. If there is time, have the students sit silently and slowly roll their heads in a full circle. (Chin to chest, ear to shoulder, head back until the mouth opens). Have the students breathe deeply while rotating the head.
10. Closing
    While remaining seated, ask students what effect the massage and exercise had on them. Review the similarities of the home remedies. Reinforce the definitions of "kanpo," acupuncture, and moxibustion.
11. Home Assignment
    Students should talk to their families and older neighbors to list additional home remedies to bring to class the next day. If they can find someone of another ethnicity, the assignment could be even more meaningful.

6

READING I

HERBAL MEDICINE

The philosophy of traditional medicine is based on the notion that humans live in and are thus susceptible to the influences of the natural environment. If they cannot adapt to its fluctuations, their bodies will become sick. External factors such as wind, temperature, and humidity, and internal factors like fatigue or emotional stress, lie at the root of illness. The internal organs are thought to be connected to certain places on the skin—hence the notion that by stimulating those spots with needle or heat, the state of the organ will be affected. The goal is to restore a person's proper balance of yin and yang in congruence with the environment. This may be accomplished externally with moxa or acupuncture, or internally with herbal medicines.

The subtle combinations of vegetable substances used in traditional Chinese herbal medicine are not yet understood by modern pharmacology. There are specialty shops that carry only *kampōyaku*, but one can also find some of the more popular combinations prepackaged and sold in a special section of any drugstore. Ota Isan is an antacid powder concocted by Mr. Ota many years ago from a variety of ingredients culled from East and West. It is considered to be far superior to Alka-Seltzer by most Japanese, so when, for a time in the 1970s, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration banned the importation of Ota Isan while it tried to ascertain what its ingredients actually affected, anxious Japanese residents of the United States importuned visiting relatives to smuggle the tins of clove-scented powder into the country with them.

There are few areas of Japan now where people seriously believe that children's diseases and tantrums are caused by a *mushi*, or "bug." In the past, however, a plethora of folk remedies was available to cure children of such bugs. One was to give a child some bit of food received from a household in which lived three generations of healthy couples. Another was to feed (or threaten to feed) the brat broiled tree frog. Quite plausibly the idea behind the latter cure was that the frog would "catch" the bug causing the bad behavior.

Moxa cautery is a traditional remedy for naughtiness that is not infrequently practiced on children even today. Moxa is used by adults for a number of ailments, and in small, less intense doses, is thought to temper childish obstreperousness. Unpleasant, although said to be quite effective, is the cure for bedwetting: burning a pinch of moxa on the tender triangle of flesh between the lower thumb and the rest of the hand.

The Japanese equivalent of the hot toddy, drunk to ward off an impending cold, is a cup of hot *sake* fortified with a spoonful of sugar and a beaten egg. A warm, overall feeling of well-being is said to ensue. Children are given a hot nectar produced from boiled tangerine peels and sugar. Every Japanese family has a collection of favorite home remedies like this, concocted mostly from ingredients likely to be found right in the kitchen.

The dreaded hangover is a disease that strikes Japanese males in particular. Although dark and quiet are the optimum conditions for reducing the ache of a big head, recovery can be speeded by drinking a tincture of boiled cloves.

Egg white mixed with a tad of soy sauce is believed to be an effective poultice for burns, and rashes will be soothed by being rubbed with slices of cucumber. Chewing roasted tangerine seeds is said to relieve a sore throat, while chewing a handful of raw brown rice will get rid of intestinal parasites. A headache may be helped by application of equal parts of sesame oil and juice of fresh ginger root, while the recipe for fever medicine, with minor changes, could double as dipping sauce for *tempura:* take one tbsp grated daikon radish, two tbsp soy sauce, and one tsp grated ginger; brew together in one liter of water; strain; drink.

Bamboo—charred, powdered, and mixed with water—will settle a queasy stomach if it doesn't unsettle it, and diarrhea can be staunched by drinking peony-root tea. Charring also brings out the benefits of pine needles and eggplants, which may then be applied to an aching tooth. Perhaps the most generally used item in the kitchen pharmacopia is the plumply wrinkled, salty-sour pickled plum, or *umeboshi*. Anyone not feeling well for whatever reason in Japan can nurture his system with a bowl of rice gruel accompanied by a couple of *umeboshi*. Japanese mountain climbers carry a packet of the moist, acidic red plums to prevent dehydration. Popping pickled plums may have the same physiological effect as swallowing salt tablets is said to have.

To keep one's health robust, one's body immune from the miasma of germs ever ready to invade, Japanese have available numerous elixers and concoctions from both traditional Eastern and "scientific" Western sources. Modern Japanese are quite as conscientious as Americans about their *bitamin* quotient. Vitamin C in particular enjoys a great vogue in Japan. The liquid synthetic vitamin Orinamin-C is sold in one-gulp bottles at every cigar stand in the country. Ginseng, garlic, and various molds that can be incubated at home on top of the television set are cultivated by people serious about maintaining their disease resistance. Germs may also be kept at bay by wearing a gauze mask over the nose and mouth. Ostensibly a way of preventing the spread of germs by a carrier, in fact, psychologically, the effect for most Japanese who wear the masks is prophylactic.

TRADITIONAL AND FOLK REMEDIES

At a Japanese public bath, one invariably sees at least one older person decorated along his or her spine with two parallel rows of round scars, about the size of peas. They are moxibustion scars, the marks left after tiny wads of dried *mogusa* leaves have been burned on the person's skin in accordance with principles of traditional medicine.

The three most important components of non-Western medicine as it is practiced in Japan today are moxa cautery, acupuncture, and the herbal pharmacopia called Chinese medicine *(kampōyaku)*. Moxa and acupuncture are based on the same system of understanding particular points and connections throughout the body. These points are stimulated—by heat in the case of moxa, needles in the case of acupuncture—to promote the body's own regenerative powers. A licensed practitioner of one can usually perform the other as well. Moxa is considered a milder treatment, and many households keep a packet of the crumbly pale-gray substance to administer to family members. Acupuncture is always left to the expert.

Both techniques are believed effective for the relief of chronic aches and pains, especially of the legs and back. Old people suffering from rheumatism often set up a regular regimen that includes massage (shiatsu), moxa, and acupuncture. The general rule is that if there is tenderness or inflammation that would make the pressure of massage painful, the number of moxa points should be increased while the burning time for each is shortened. Conversely, if massage feels good and the body is relaxed, fewer moxa points of greater heat should be applied. It is recommended that any of these techniques be performed at least thirty minutes after meals, and preferably after bowel evacuation.

Moxa cautery and acupuncture were introduced to the West in the eighteenth century by the Dutch doctor Rhyne and the German Kampfer, who had observed Japanese physicians inflicting these odd treatments on their patients. In the late nineteenth century Japanese turned away from their needles and *mogusa* to adopt Western medical knowledge and techniques. Now there is something of a resurgence of the old ways, sparked in no small part by the interest of Western scientists in the physiological principles behind the effectiveness of these treatments.

READING II

Acupuncture
Moxa Cautery
(Moxibustion)

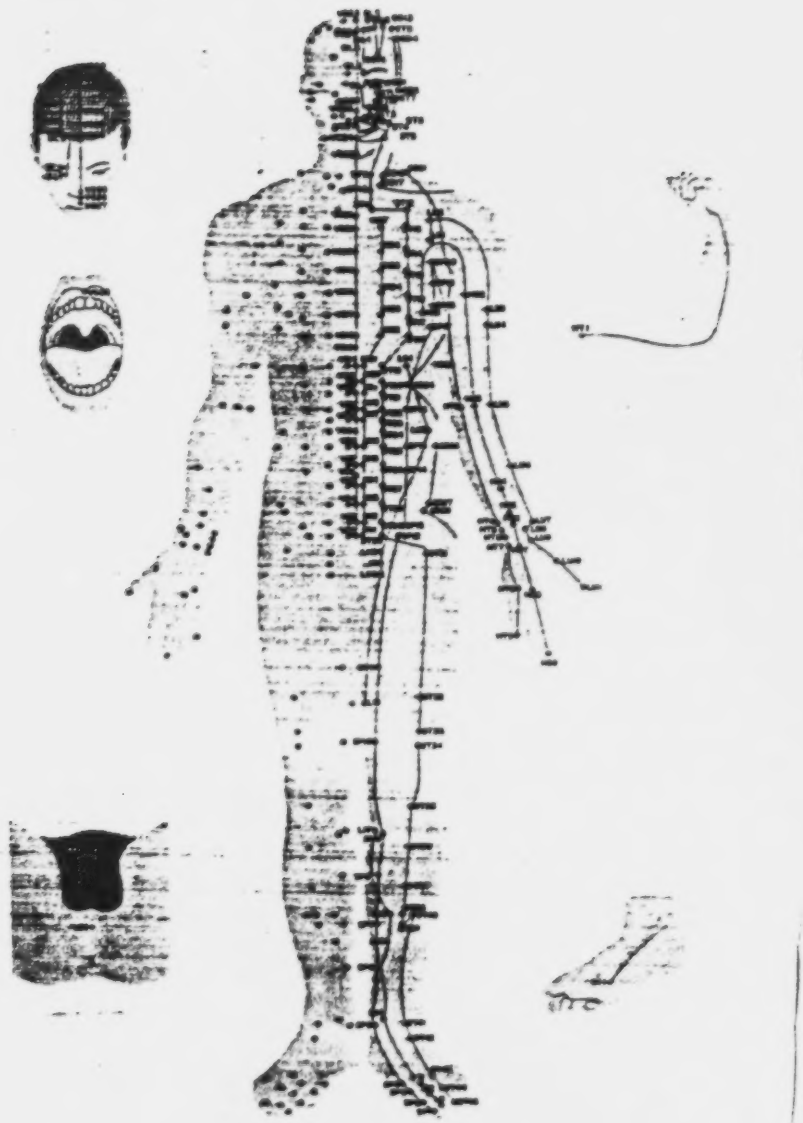


Figure 1 Acupuncture meridians and points for entire anatomy—anterior view

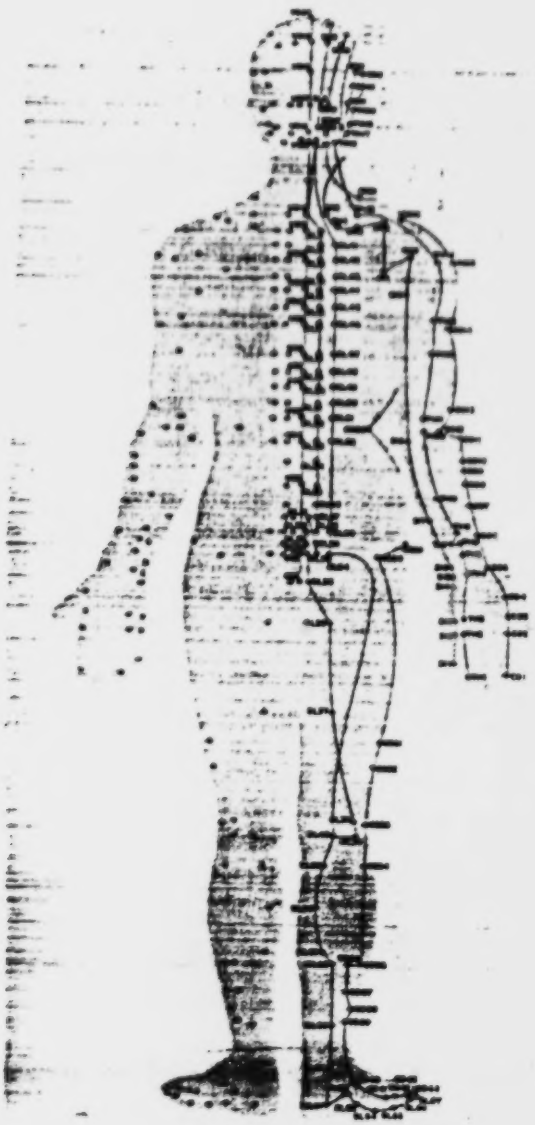


Figure 2 Posterior view

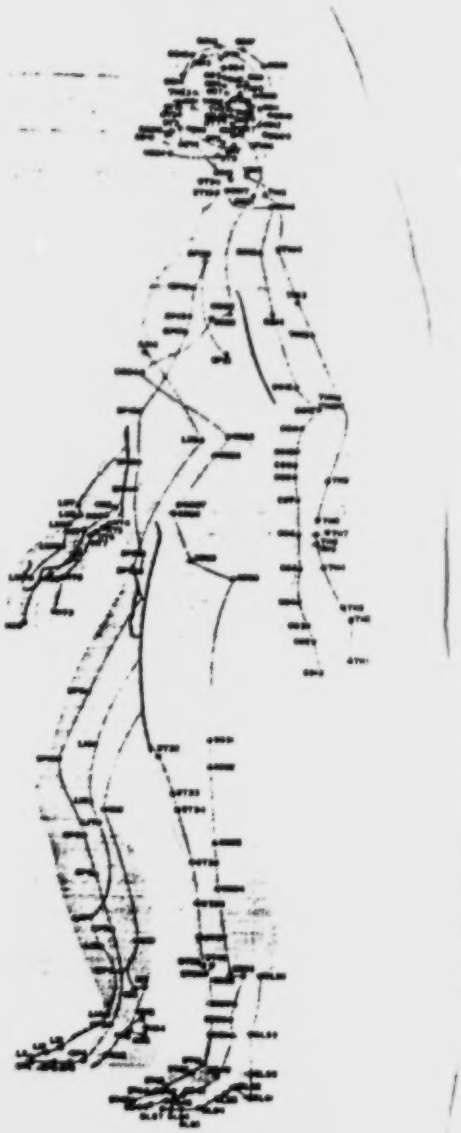


Figure 3 Lateral view

Meridians Key: LU, Lung; CO, Large Intestine; HT, Heart; SI, Small Intestine; HG, Heart-Governing; TH, Triple Heater; SP, Spleen; ST, Stomach; KI, Kidney; BL, Urinary Bladder; LI, Liver, GB, Gallbladder; VC, Conception Vessel; VG, Governing Vessel

MASSAGE

Two professions have always been open to the blind in Japan. One is the musician—a blind *koto* player has an undeniable edge over his sighted confreres; and the other is the masseur, or *anma*. One lives by his ears, the other by his fingers. A professionally trained *anma*, who today must be certified by the board of health in the prefecture where he practices, is similar to a chiropractor. His hands are his instruments, and the technique of "finger pressure"—*shiatsu*—is the most important skill in his repertoire.

The origins of *shiatsu* lie in the practical philosophy of judo: a thorough knowledge of the body, its weak points, the flow of energy, the strength to be found in one's "center," and the importance of flexible joints. This traditional wisdom of the body was allied with Western holistic health theories to produce the art of *shiatsu* as it is practiced in Japan today.

The basic technique is the "rectification" of a person's vertebrae through controlled pressure applied along the spine. Although Japanese love to massage each others' stiff shoulders, actual *shiatsu* is usually left to a professional, for the amount of pressure to be applied must be carefully gauged to the body type, general health, and age of the person receiving treatment.

The practitioner begins by kneeling over his supine patient and stroking down the spine with his palms. Then, placing his right hand on top of his left, he presses for three or four seconds at each handspan from neckbone to tailbone. By this process he may ascertain the state of the spine—if it is curved, if there are lumps. With his wrists and thumbs, he pays particular attention to any irregular spots. Neurological disorders are thought to be caused by malalignment of the spine, and *shiatsu* is held to be effective in their cure.

The technique is called "finger pressure," but in fact the weight of the masseur's entire body is being conducted through the fingers, zeroing in on stiffness. The *shiatsu* master's experienced fingers tell him just how much pressure to apply, and at what rhythm.

Manipulation of the joints is also important in *shiatsu*. Stretching and rotating works out the body's kinks and is considered to promote general good health and physiological well-being. It is very important that the patient be relaxed, however, for a sudden tightening of the muscles could be disastrous—especially when the neck is being rotated.

Japanese think of *shiatsu* for relief of conditions like high blood pressure, insomnia, rheumatism, and gastrointestinal disorders, as well as the common headache, stiff neck, and fatigue. In general, *shiatsu* is practiced on chronic conditions and is not recommended for persons in a weakened state, with fever, with all-over aches, with a tumor, or with an inflamed appendix.

Toe rotation and flexing the toe joints is a milder form of *shiatsu* that has many devotees all over Japan. Although there are specialists in this too, it is easy (and safe) for a person to work on his or her own feet. The result is felt immediately when one sits lotus fashion, grasps the big toe with thumb and forefinger, and rotates it firmly thirty times clockwise. It is as if a rubber band holding the shoulders taut were suddenly let go.

Shiatsu techniques are practiced in the West through chiropracty, which it has heavily influenced, and also by specialists trained in Japan. *Shiatsu* workshops are advertised on college campuses, in the counterculture newspapers, and increasingly, in most larger cities.

The *shiatsu* therapist relieves back tension by pulling the muscles. The technique also aids circulation.

READING III

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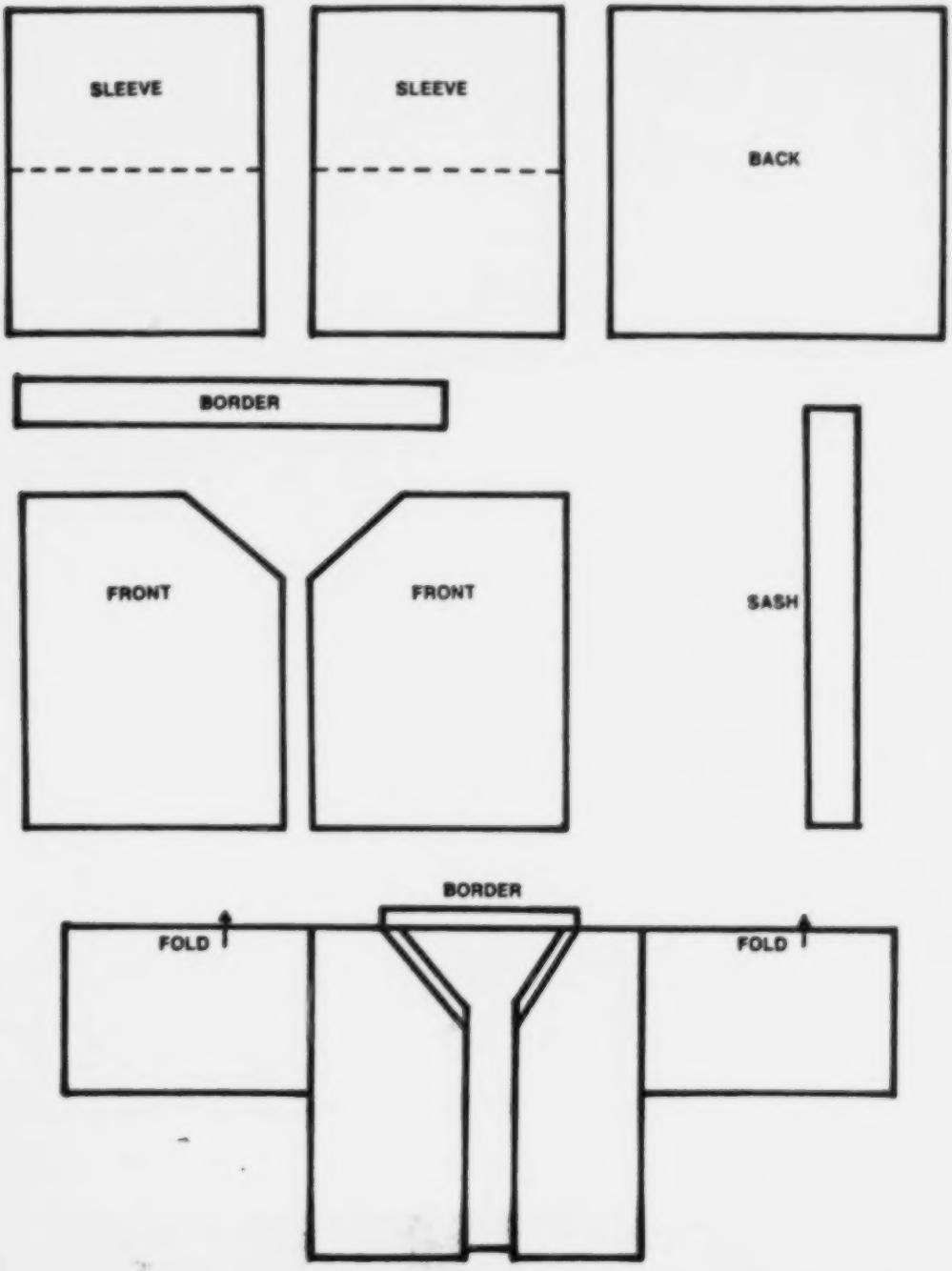
PATTERN FOR KIMONA



SOURCE: Around The World: Japan, Dr. Vicki Galloway, State Department of Education, South Carolina.

DRESS

In Japan today, most people wear Western clothing in their everyday life. The traditional kimono is now worn only on ceremonial and special occasions and sometimes for relaxing at home.

The kimono traditionally was made of linen, silk or cotton. In recent years, kimonos have been made in synthetic fabrics, making them available to those who cannot afford silk.

The kimono is a wrap-around robe with long, dangling sleeves, held closely in place by a tightly wound broad sash (obi) and a number of other belts or ties. Men's kimonos have simpler, narrower sashes. Fabric designs frequently represent flowers, leaves and other natural features, reflecting the Japanese love of nature.

Men wear kimonos mainly at home. On formal occasions they wear haori (a half-coat) and hakama (a divided skirt).

The cotton yukata is an informal kimono and is popular as a home garment especially in summer. Most hotels provide yukatas for their guests to wear overnight.

Lesson II: Japanese Hospitalization, A Sociocultural Viewpoint

Introduction to Teacher:

The biomedical system of medicine as administered in the hospitals of Japan does not simply depend on the world of science. For the effective delivery of the system, the physician accepts the practice of "kanpo," religious rites, and social customs as integral parts of patient care. This does not mean the physician necessarily uses the "kanpo" system or religious rites in the healing procedure. He does recognize that one or both may be essential to the well-being of the patient; therefore, all efforts are taken into consideration. The attached chart indicates the historical role in society of each system, and the utilization of each in illness situations today. Each system is throughly embedded in the Japanese culture and society.

An overview of the three aspects using the chart indicates that biomedicine has been most effective in acute cases. "Kanpo" has been most effective in health maintenance and chronic and degenerative diseases or illnesses. Although the functions of religions may not actually be preceived as medical, the patients visit shrines, receive amulets, etc. for both general and specific problems of health. The medical role played by the religions provides both psychological comfort and counseling.

Objectives:

Cognitive: The student will compare and contrast hospitalization in the United States and Japan.
Affective: The student will develop an appreciation of the sociocultural aspects of medicine in Japan.
Cognitive: The student will examine the interdependent medical pluralism of Japan.

Advance Preparation:

- Make transparencies of all hand-outs, charts.
- Copy all or part of "Biomedicine in Culture and Society" for class.
- Determine introducotry enviroment:
  a., b., and c. same as Lesson I.
  d. - Overhead projection of chart, "Delivery of Kanpo : Multiple Levels"

Instructional Activities:

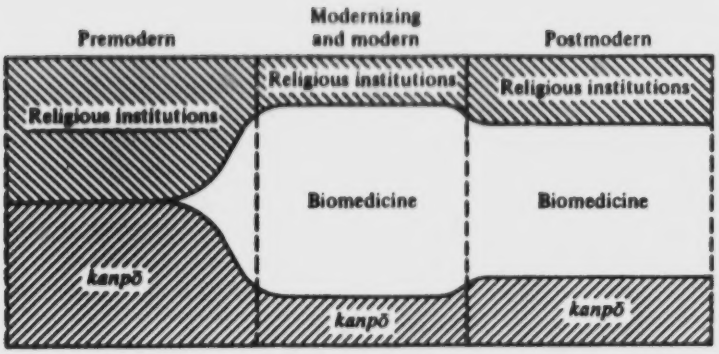
1. Using the transparency chart, "Delivery of Kanpo: Multiple Levels," review Lesson I. Ask for additional home remedies students have as a result of the homework assignment form Lesson I.
2. Teacher-introduction to Lesson II - Use the introductory information and previously studied knowledge of shintoism and Buddihism. Show the transparency, "Medical Specializations of Japanese Dieties and Buddhas." Reinforce knowledge of use of an amulet, prayers and gifts to the dieties.
3. Ask students if they or someone they have known has ever been in the hospital. Get general impressions from the students. Tell students

the objective of comparing and contrasting United States and Japanese hospitalization. Hand out "Biomedicine in Culture and Society." Students read orally.

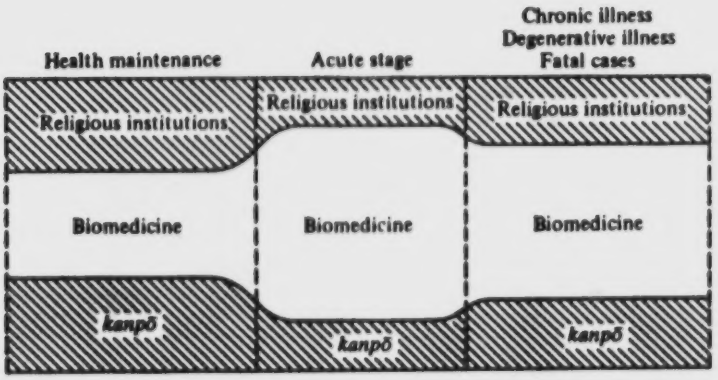
4. Using the categories listed in "Japanese Hospitalization," have students write on the chalkboard U.S. characteristics or customs. Next, use the transparency of the above reading to compare and contrast U.S. and Japan.
5. Closing:
   Have students express their impressions of the Japanese system. Have the students "grade" the Japanese way and the U.S. way in each category.
6. Evaluation:
   In class or at home the student is to make a report card using the categories in "Japanese Hospitalization" plus two additional categories they developed from the two lessons. Each grade must have comments to support the grade awarded.

Medical specializations of Japanese deities and buddhas

Specializations	Shinto deities	Buddhas	Taoist deities
Illness			
Illness in general	Kōjin Shōbagami Daimyōjin	Roped Jizō (Shibari Jizō) Substitute Jizō (Migawari Jizō)	
Illness of the face	Wart-Stone Deity (Iboishi-sama)	Lifting Jizō (Mochiage Jizō)	
Illness of the eyes	Deity of the Blind (Mekura-gami) Deity of the Well (Ido-no-Kami)	Konryaku Ennin	Kōshin-sama
Illness of the ears (running otrumes; ringing in the ears)	Deity of the Boundary (Sae-no-Kami) Deity of the Ears (Mimi-no-Kami)	Jizō of the Ears (Mimi Jizō)	Kōshin-sama
Illness of the throat	Rooster Daimyōjin (Tori Daimyōjin)	Prayer Jizō (Gankake Jizō)	
Illness of the teeth	Deity of the Toilet (Kawaya-no-Kami)		Kōshin-sama
Illness of the chest and other respiratory organs	Deity of Coughing (Shiwabuki-sama)	Roped Jizō (Shibari Jizō)	Kōshin-sama
Illness of the stomach	Tsuri Tenjin	Roped Jizō (Shibari Jizō)	
Illness of the hip and the limbs	Deity of the Hip (Koshi-no-Kami) Deity of the Lower Limbs (Ashi-sama) Kōjin of the Limbs (Ashide Kōjin) Deity of the Boundary (Sae-no-Kami)		
Illness of the skin		An Jizō	
Contagious illness	Deity of Smallpox (Hōso-shin)		Kōshin-sama
Illness of women	Awashima-sama		
Illness of children	Deity of Dirt and Poison (Odoku-sama)		Kōshin-sama
Life cycle			
Pregnancy and childbirth	Deity of the Broom (Hōki-no-Kami) Deity of Childbirth (Ubugami) Deity of the Mortar (Usu-no-Kami) Deity of the Pregnancy Stone (Yōseiishi) Deity of the Boundary (Sae-no-Kami) Deity of the Toilet (Kawaya-no-Kami) Deity of the Mountain (Yama-no-Kami) Deity of Easy Childbirth (Koyasu-sama)	Jizō of Easy Childbirth (Koyasu Jizō)	Kōshin-sama
Growth	Deity of the Boundary (Sae-no-Kami) Deity of Easy Childbirth (Koyasu-sama)	Kannon of Easy Childbirth (Koyasu Kannon) Jizō of Easy Childbirth (Koyasu Jizō)	Kōshin-sama
Marriage	Deity of Motherhood (Komochi Gosan)		



(a) Japanese society



(b) Illness career of a contemporary Japanese

A hypothetical picture of the relative importance of the three medical systems.

Biomedicine in culture and society

An examination of the sociocultural aspects of biomedicine starts with Japanese values and ideologies as incorporated in biomedicine delivery – the relationship of biomedicine to culture – and then proceeds to look at how these values are translated into patterns of social relationships. I will make frequent comparisons between Japan and the United States, perhaps overly stressing the differences.

Above all, biomedical delivery in Japan is firmly based on the cultural affirmation of illness. To use a Parsonian framework (Parsons 1979), illness in Japanese culture is assigned the positive values of legitimacy and desirability, which are institutionalized through the generous allowance of visitation at hospitals and other forms of "indulgence." Family members, friends, and even health specialists all pamper the sick: Patients are allowed to stay in the hospital for a long time, are fed their favorite foods, and receive visits and gifts. Similarly, Japanese workers who feel reluctant to take all their paid vacation readily take sick leave, and even the most dedicated wife and mother may take a month-long vacation from household chores and duties and return to her natal home for child delivery.

The cultural affirmation of illness is closely related to the cultural approval of the dependent state in which a sick person is placed. That dependent state is, in the Japanese view, an extension of the interdependent state of every person in Japanese society, in which "a self . . . can feel human in the company of others" (Plath 1982:120). This concept of self contrasts with the Western conceptual model, which Geertz (1976:225) points out as unique from a global perspective:

> The Western conception of the person as a bounded, unique, more or less integrated motivational and cognitive universe, a dynamic center of awareness, emotion, judgement, and action organized into a distinctive whole and set contrastively both against other such wholes and against its social and natural background, is, however incorrigible it may seem to us, a rather peculiar idea within the context of the world's cultures.

Differences in cultural attitudes toward illness between Japan and the United States, thus, are ultimately related to the concept of self in each culture.

Independence and individual freedom are two facets of the most cherished value in the United States. The sick, the handicapped, and the aged are people who must depend upon others; the healthy and the young must avoid becoming like them. One of the favorite ways to "brag" about an American child, I have often observed, is to say that the child is independent. Training for such independence must start right from the beginning; even a newborn infant has a crib or separate bed, and usually is placed in a separate room, rather than beside the mother. To cite only one other example, the label "Independent Living" is often used as the title of organizations and facilities that help the elderly and the handicapped in the United States. This label certainly minimizes or even hides the fact that these organizations and facilities are in existence because these people are in some way dependent. It also stresses the fact that they must become independent to be fully accepted members of American society. In contrast, Japanese parents brag about children being *amaeta*, amenable to letting the parents and others take care of them (see Doi 1978), and they often let children sleep beside their mothers until they are about twelve years old (Caudill and Plath 1966).

Values and attitudes toward illness are translated directly into the sick role and the patient role in the two cultures. In Japan, the patient role receives no negative sanction. Each patient continues to be a person (using personal belongings during hospitalization), a kin member (cared for by the family), and a member of a larger social group (receiving visitors from work). In fact, during hospitalization, these roles are tested and hence even more clearly articulated than usual. As a patient's social network becomes intensely activated, the social definition of the patient's self, as defined by multiple roles in the network, becomes clearly accentuated. In other words, the patient is not removed from the society; on the contrary, the patient is given an opportunity to feel and experience both individual and social identity, as well as importance as an individual and social persona. For patients who are reassured that they are cherished husbands, wives, fathers, or mothers, and desirable co-workers, the willingness to resume these roles certainly must be intensified.

Again, the contrast with the patient role in the United States is illuminating. An American patient becomes a number on a wristband, is clothed in a nondescript sterile gown, regardless of sex, fed institutional food, and almost completely isolated from the rest of society. The patient's role is a reflection of the idea that sickness is undesirable and that the sick must be removed from the society. As Parsons points out, the United States practices "insulation" of the sick from the healthy, as well as from other sick people, because both "motivationally as well as bacteriologically," illness may be contagious (Parsons 1979:133). It is feared that germs, or even worse, dependency will spread. Sterile gowns, then, are symbolic of sterilization to get rid of "American germs"; the biomedical justification for their sterility can hardly be taken seriously, because there are too many other objects patients come in contact with that are not sterile. The complete transformation of the sick individual into a patient also signifies

the subordination of individuality to the "authority" of the medical personnel (see Blum 1960:esp. 220–9).

In the case of the Japanese, then, the legitimacy given to illness is the key to a successful fight against the encroachment of an impersonal institutionalization in the care of the sick. In contrast, in the United States the lack of legitimacy or the equating of illness with deviant behavior, as Parsons and Fox (1952) would put it, encourages the institutional care of the sick (see also Fox 1968:93). This is because the pampering of the sick by the family members would encourage a sick person to engage in "eating his cake and having it too" (Parsons and Fox 1952:35), thereby prolonging the illness-deviant behavior. In Japan the psychological support by the family and others motivates the patient to recover quickly, whereas in the United States, "punishment" by institutional-impersonal treatment motivates the sick to become healthy.

The Japanese fight against institutionalization in the care of the sick has historical continuity. Most revealing is a popular protest, called *korera ikki* (cholera riots), in 1879. During a cholera epidemic, the government isolated the victims to prevent its spread and also took care of the corpses, rather than returning them to their families (Koto, et al. 1967:76–7; Ono 1968:109–13; Tatsukawa 1979:177–206). These policies were directly contrary to the cherished tradition of the family continuing to care for the sick during hospitalization and allowing the sick to return home to die. They led people to believe that the hospitals were selling the victims' livers to Westerners, despite the fact that epidemics were brought into Japan by visitors from Asian countries (Ono 1968: 109), not by Westerners. The result was public protest.

It is ironic that in the United States, where individualism is valued so highly, the patient role denies individualism. Patients are denied their individual and social identities, are not permitted to make their own decisions, and must obey the medical judgments of their doctors who, in contrast to Japanese doctors, seem to place far less emphasis on "human factors." For Americans, therefore, in whose society individuals who defy the system and the authorities are treated as heroes in the public media (Hsu 1973:13–14), the hospital patient role is often a painful experience of dehumanization and the deprivation of individualism.

The role played by kin members in the care of the sick even after hospitalization is reported from many parts of the world. Janzen, in his study of Zairian health care, called attention to this phenomenon by stressing the "therapy managing group," who "rally for the purpose of sifting information, lending moral support, making decisions, and arranging details of therapeutic consultation," and who exercise "a brokerage function between the sufferer and the specialist" (Janzen 1978:13–14). The Zairian therapy managing group consists primarily of various maternal and paternal kin. In the case of the Japanese, a woman close to the patient (wife, mother, daughter) often becomes the primary person in patient care, although critical issues are sometimes discussed between the doctor and close male kin. Also, in the Japanese case the "broker" image would be inappropriate, because it suggests that the group mediates between the doctor and the patient. The Japanese family or an equivalent often act as "patient surrogates," who read the patient's wishes and speak for him or her, at times without explicitly consulting the patient. They are more than mediators; they are surrogates who almost become one with the patient.

Japanese Hospitalization

Category:

Selection of Doctor and Hospital

1. Expertise of doctor
2. Advice of family
3. Closeness to home
4. Personal introduction to docotr (patient refuses to be a passive recipient of institutionalized care.)
5. Sometines patient gives a gift to the doctor.

Length of Hospitalization

1. Japanese is longest in the world (42.9 days is average.)
2. U.S. average stay is 8.1 days.
3. Reasons for long term hospitalizations
   a. Hospitals encourage long stays in order to receive more reimbursement from the government and insurance companies. (Especially true for the elderly who have coverage by National Health Insurance Plan.)
   b. Japanese often wait until they are very sick before they go to a doctor.
   c. Emphasis on peace and quiet and bed rest as the major treatment for virtually all illnesses.
   d. Co-workers are usually trained in many areas of the work place; therefore, there is someone to fill the work vacancy.
   e. Due to the work ethic and pressure, most workers do not use all of their paid vacation. Hospitalization is accepted with no stigma and allows a break from work.
   f. Mothers spend less time in hospitals than other groups because often there is no one to replace them in the home.
   g. The family takes care of the patient instead of complete nursing care.

Patient and Family Roles

1. Patient wears own nightwear.
2. Family takes care of the patient (often day and night).
   a. attend to personal (for example, the bath)
   b. receives all visitors.
   c. provides meals (hospital meals are poor in taste and quality.)
   d. usually takes terminal patient home to die.
3. Woman takes care of husband and children (also parents and in-laws).
4. Daughter and mother take care of women.

Visitation

1. Little or no restriction on hours.
2. Bring gifts.
3. Negligence in visiting may have grave social consequences. (Psychologically important to support the ill person to promote healing.)
4. Problems are created with gravely ill persons. The doctor desires no visitors, but everyone is expected to give their last farewells. "No Visitor" signs often result in even more visitors.

Gifts

1. Visitations equal gifts.
2. Nature of gift is determined by the symbolic meaning not the economic value.
   - 1st - Food items symbolize vitality of nature to the ill.
   - 2nd - Nightwear, soap, colognes symolize cleanliness, purification.
   - 3rd - Flowers - roses and carnations are most popular. No camellias because they wither and the head falls off. No hydrangea because they change color and suggest a worse skin color for the ill person.
   - 4th - Money is frowned upon unless the sender lives very far away.

Reciprocity

1. Once the patient is well, he or she is obliged to give gifts to all who brought gifts while he or she was ill.
2. The type of gift is determined by the value of the gift received and the social relationship of the two people.

Doctor Relationship

1. Doctor assumes the burden of caring for the whole person.
2. Doctor and patient names are on the hospital door (confidence: obligation).
3. A diagnosis of cancer is not given to the patient. It is given to the family who decides whether or not to tell the patient.

Professional Attendents

1. Poorly paid, around the clock attendant who may be hired to take care of the ill.
2. Effective for those with no families.
3. Legally attendents can only work in hospitals which do not have adequate nursing care.
4. Families can disquise the attendant as a family member and hire her privately.

音楽

JAPANESE MUSIC

Music of Japan: A Cultural Experience

A Teaching Unit for Secondary World History Teachers

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June 12, 1987

Music of Japan:
A Cultural Experience

Unit Introduction

This teaching unit of two 55 minute lessons is designed to give an exposure of a part of Japanexe culture that is little understood, recognized, and appreciated by high school students in our western culture. By giving these students an introduction into the diversity of music listened to and played by the Japanese today, both young and old, it is hoped that it will broaden their acceptance of things different from their own world. At the same time it will help them realize that many things of their culture are widely accepted and avidly followed by the Japanese and that an understanding of their music is a guide to an understnading of Japanese society itself.

This unit is also designed to teach the students the different types of music listened to and played in Japan. They also will be able to recognize traditional Japanese music when heard, and hopefully, enjoy the experience of learning something about a different culture that they can identify with. Also, they will be able to better relate to the Japanese students they encounter in school and society. Since our country's relationship with this Asian country is deepening, they need to be able to communicate better with our Japanese friends.

Resources

These teaching lessons use books in the subject as well as numerous multi-media aides to enhance the project. The basic source used was All Japan: The Catalogue of Everything Japanese, Oliver Statler, Quarto Marketing Ltd., New York, 1984.

Other sources were:

Facts About Japan, Public Information and Cultural Affairs Bureau, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Japan
- -(1)"Gagaku"
- -(2)"Music In Japan"

The Culture of Japan, Japan Air Lines
- -"Music of Japan"

The Japan of Today: 1986, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Japan

The Music and Musical Instruments of Japan, Sir Francis Piggott, Da Capo Press, New York, 1971.

Japanese Music, William Malm, Charles E. Tuttle Company, Ruthland, Vermont, 1974.

All teachers are advised to obtain recordings of classical and popular Japanese music as either background or in-depth study. Such material can be found in local music stores or in school and larger city libraries.

Lesson One
Traditional Japanese Music

Background Information

It is thought that Japanese music got its start with the creation of the country as recorded in the Kojiki. Here it is recorded that Izanagi and Iganami the sun goddess and moon god, sang in unison as they were making the islands of Japan. It is believed also that Ame no Uzume in the Nihon Shoki danced to the accompaniment of a six-stringed harp before Izanagi's cave. Izanagi had retired there in anger, leaving the world in darkness so Uaume went there to coax her out. From this prehistoric period there was a gradual evolution of traditional Japanese music used as parts of the Noh, Kabuki, and Bunraku dramas.

One of the oldest forms of traditional Japanese music is gagaku - ancient court Music originally enjoyed by the nobility and upper classes. It derives from a style of music introduced to Japan in the 8th century from China which, in turn, had been influenced by Persian, Indian, and Korean music forms. It is orchestral music without any vocal part. Gagaku is publicly performed in Japan from time to time by the Music Department of the Imperial Household, although it is also preserved in a few shrines and temples. It is highly stylized and evokes the elaborate rituals of a bygone age.

Gagaku exists today in three types: (1) ancient dances and music of pure Japanese origin, (2) compositions brought over from various parts of Asia, and (3) Japanese selections composed after foreign styles. The three most common instruments used in gagaku are the shakuhachi, shamisen, and koto. Other instruments also played are the dadaiko and taiko drums, wagon, gakuso, gohubiwa, and hichriki. A variety of wind instruments are also included. A gagaku concert is a rare experience for the Westerner since it evokes a feeling for the Japanese Imperial past. Traditional Japanese music is also broadcast frequently over Tokyo radio stations.

Lesson Objectives

1. Students will become knowledgeable of Japan's honored ancient musical heritage by reading the selections made for them by the teacher.
2. Students will be exposed to the sounds of Japanese court music and Western classical music and be able to discuss its similarities and differences.
3. Students will then be able to able to adequately write a short essay on their impressions of Japanese classical music and explain how this music is a reflection of Japanese ancient history.
4. Students will be able recognize Japanese music when heard, and will be able recognize visually and audially the three most common Japanese classical instruments: koto, shamisen, and shakuhachi.
5. Students will gain an appreciation for music other than their own.

Questions for Discussion

1. Describe the origins and development of traditional Japanese music from its beginning to the end of the Tokugawa Era.
2. Name and describe the three most commonly used Japanese classical instruments.
3. Explain how development of traditional Japanese music is a reflection of early Japanese cultural development.
4. Describe the importance of Japanese classical music among Japanese audiences today.
5. Discuss the importance of knowing about Japanese classical music in our modern western world.
6. Compare/contrast Japanese and Western classical music.
7. Describe your reactions to Japanese classical music in a positive manner. How does this help us understand the Japanese personality?

Lesson Two
Modern Japanese Music

Background Information

Since music is considered by many to be the universal language, a bridging of the gap between the Japanese and American cultures can be reduced somewhat by students having been exposed to Japan's music, both traditional and popular. Lesson One was a short introduction to the basic sounds and instruments of classical Japanese music. Lesson Two is a short introduction to the popular music listened to in Japan today.

Historically, Western music began to develop along with Japanese music in the last half of the 1800's. Since 1900, Japan has imported military music, classical music, pre-war pops, jazz, rick, bluegrass, folk and electronic. As a consequence, everything form of Western music is composed, performed and enjoyed in Japan today.

Every year there is a steady flow of celebrated foreign musicians and organizations coming to perform in Japan. Likewise, Japanese musicians themselves are performing overseas frequently and are achieving a growing international reputation. Of particular interest to the American audience is the adaptation of Jazz to Japanese music. Swing, bebop, cool jazz, hard bop, and fusion have all flourished in their turn. To the teenage audiences, the most listened to and sought after musical group is the "Beatles," a 1970's British rock group.

Lesson Objectives

1. Students will be able to describe the kinds of Western music enjoyed in Japan today.

2. Students should be able to compare/contrast their pop music to that of the Japanese teenage music and gain an insight into a culture other than their own.

3. Students will be able to describe how modern Japanese music is a reflection of that society now.

4. Students will be able to list the ways that music is listened to by Japanese teenagers.

5. Students will be able to list a few popular Japanese rock stars and songs.

Lesson Resources

All sources listed in Lesson One were used in Lesson Two. In addition, recordings of Japanese popular music can be obtained from local record shops or ordered from catalogues provided by them.

Questions for Discussion

1. How does popular Japanese music differ from popular American music?
2. List American rock groups popular in Japan.
3. By listening to popular Japanese teenage music, what does that reveal about them that they have in common with you?
4. What does Japanese music reveal about that society today?

Vocabulary

These words should be defined by the students after the introduction to the unit is given. They are aides to understanding the material presented.

1. classical
2. cultural assimilation
3. multi-media
4. Gagaku
5. Koto
6. shamisen
7. shakubachi
8. jazz
9. punk
10. bepop

Audio-Visual Resources

These films can be ordered from:

Consulate Genreal of Japan
5420 Allied Bank Plaza
1000 Louisiana Street
Houston, TX 77002

1. Film #150 - "Music of Modern Japan"
2. Videocassettes:
   Tape B #4 "The Onedoza - Traditional Musician"
   Tape C #1 "Sataro Tonoka - Traditional Musician"

Secondary Information

Gagaku – Ancient Court Music

The first significant development in the history of Japanese music took place in the Heian Period (794–1192 A.D.). While Japanese music which had been popular among common people was being sophisticated, all kinds of music from various Asian countries in the previous two centuries were being assimilated and modified, acquiring distinct Japanese characteristics. *Gagaku* is the music which was performed mainly at Court among the powerful nobility and upper classes.

Noh

During the Kamakura Period (1192–1333 A.D.) through the Muromachi Period (1338–1583 A.D.), there was a steady growth of folk theatrical arts from shrine ritual plays and peasant rice-planting dances. By the end of the 14th century, there had developed the artistic *Noh* drama with its own music called *Nohgaku*, and dancing known as *Shimai*. *Noh* is highly stylized and symbolic drama, and is usually performed by a few male actors and musicians. A main character often wears a mask which fits its role.

Shakuhachi, *Koto*, and *Shamisen*

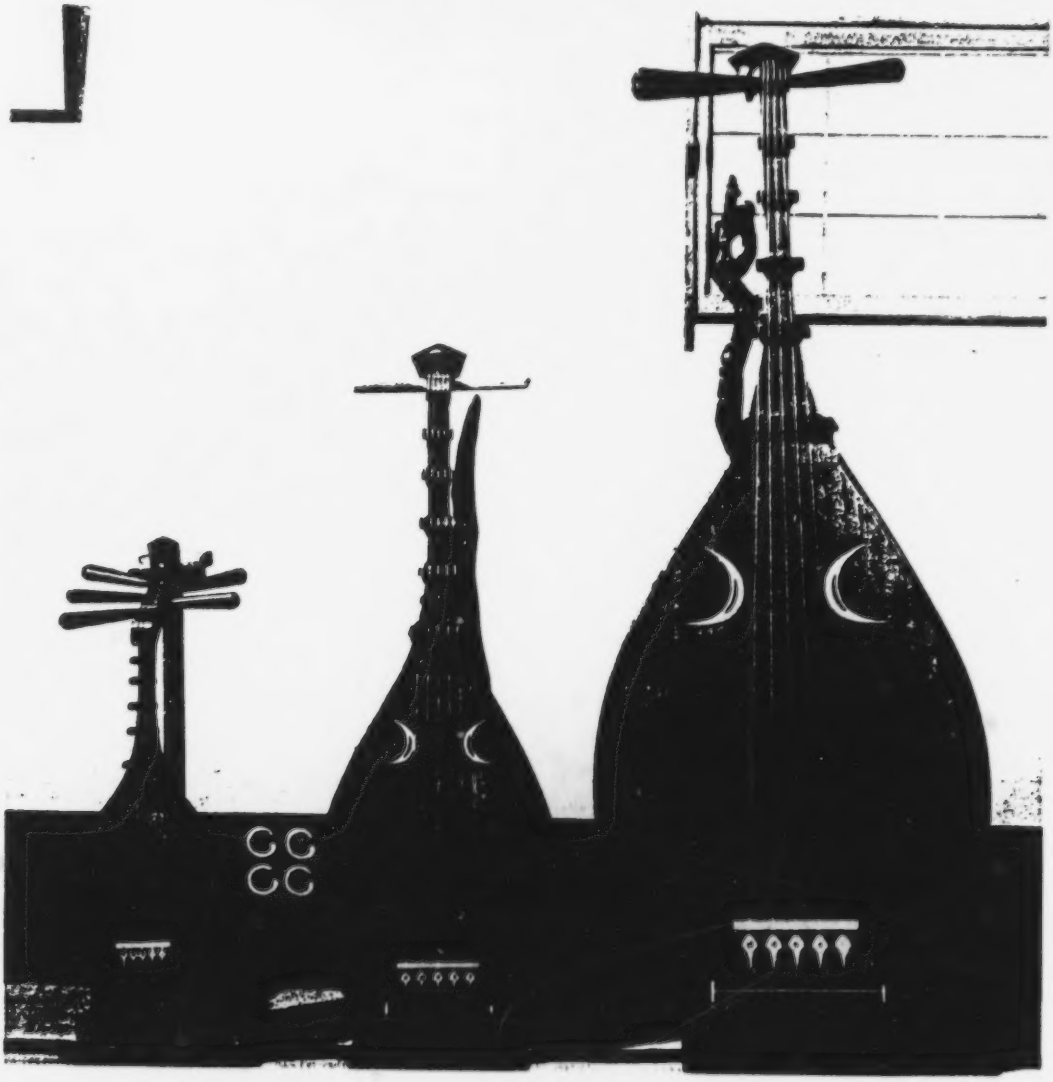
The Azuchi-Momoyama Period (1573–1603 A.D.) is important in the historical development of several instruments. The primitive recorder was modified to become the artistic *shakuhachi*, while the old court zither became the more sonorous *koto*. The *shamisen* (a three-stringed balalaika-type guitar) also took on its present shape. All these instruments achieved great popularity in the Edo Period (1603–1867) by various routes.

Shakuhachi was originally played as a part of a Zen service or practice and was the favorite instrument among wandering Buddhist priests. Although the *shakuhachi* became a purely musical instrument performed by musicians, solo pieces with strong religious significance are still regarded as the most important form of *shakuhachi* music. It also started to be used with the *shamisen* and *koto* as pure music without emphasizing its religious background.

The *shamisen* is used for accompaniment of two types of vocal music: melodious singing and narrative singing. The former type of *shamisen* music developed in two different directions, *Jiuta* and *Nagauta*; *Jiuta* has been enjoyed as pure music, following an independent existence as music itself; *Nagauta* was formed as accompaniment for dancing in traditional *Kabuki* dramas. Later *Nagauta* has come to be played by itself without dancing in much the same way as the original was played as an accompaniment for dancing. Several styles of *shamisen* music have been derived from these two major types.

A traditional performance of Japanese music by an ensemble of 'sankyoku' (three instruments, i.e. 'koto', 'shamisen' and 'shakuhachi').

DRUMS, FLUTES, AND STRINGS



The mendicant monk playing his *shakuhachi* is a familiar figure in Japanese literature and legend. The instrument, a type of end-blown flute, produces a breathy, reedy tone that is full of a loneliness and mystery that evoke medieval Japan.

Drummers give it all they've got for a shrine festival. The *matsuri-bayashi* (festival music) of popular Shintō is one of the most accessible of Japanese musical styles: The combination of drum, flute, and bell, played in syncopation, is irresistibly exciting.

Popular Music

The Japanese also enjoy various types of popular music. Beside Japanese popular music which is supported by the largest number of fans, American jazz and pops, French chansons, Latin music from South America, and canzone from Italy have always attracted many enthusiasts. In recent times, moreover, rock, soul, and folk music from the U.S. have won widespread popularity, especially among the younger generations. Hit numbers and songs are broadcast on radio and television, while foreign TV shows of pop music have been introduced into Japan. Moreover, pop music is constantly performed live and is available on records or tapes, or by cable broadcasts in restaurants and coffee shops, extensively permeating the people's daily life.

Popular music numbers and songs, which have become hits in Europe and the U.S., are almost immediately introduced and played in Japan, and recordings are promptly put on sale. A wide range of foreign performers are constantly – and very successfully – appearing in concert in Japan. Those songs are also sung by Japanese popular singers either in the original or in Japanese translation.

Western Music

Every conceivable form of Western music is performed, composed, and enjoyed in Japan today. At the apex of musical performance groups is the NHK (Japan Broadcasting Corporation) Symphony Orchestra in Tokyo with a sixty-year history. Tokyo and other large cities have a fairly large number of professional orchestras and even a number of amateur ones.

There are also many performing groups for chamber music, which also has a large following. Participation in choruses and brass bands is also very popular. It is estimated that several hundreds of thousands of people are singing as members of choruses at lower and upper secondary schools and universities and other amateur chorus groups throughout the country.

Concerts, recitals, and peformances of opera and ballet draw large audiences with programs of works by composers ranging from Bach to the most modern experimentalists.

There are many opera lovers in Japan, but presenting opera is not easy since Japanese theaters as a rule do not have the facilities required for such an undertaking. However, in recent years more and more fine singers are appearing. In addition to the numerous performances of opera from abroad, Japanese companies give increasingly fine performances, and there is now a plan to establish a Second National Theater for opera.

Many composers are also active in Japan's musical world, the best-known of them being Toru Takemitsu.

Every year, besides the performances by Japanese musicians there is a steady flow of celebrated foreign musicians and organizations coming to perform in Japan.

Japanese musicians themselves are performing overseas frequently and are achieving a growing international reputation. Individual conductors are also drawing attention abroad, such as Seiji Ozawa, now music director of the Boston Symphony in the United States, and Hiroshi Wakasugi, who has conducted many European orchestras.

Sporting a haircut that is half punk, half samurai, a black-clad youth strums an imaginary guitar. The Japanese refer to such teenagers as *Amegurazoku*, after the film *American Graffiti*, the inspiration for their behavior.

Dressed like Americans, teenagers dance their hearts out in the rain.

New Japanese Music

The preservation as well as development of Japanese music in its classical forms is not being neglected and many composers including Minoru Miki and Maki Ishii are actively working on modern compositions in the traditional styles. Especially in the fields of *koto* music and more recently of *shakuhachi* music as well, many excellent composers are trying to combine Japanese traditional forms and the Western style. One group dedicated to cultivating new Japanese music within its classical tradition is the Ensemble Nipponica, formed in 1964 and consisting of distinguished soloists and composers. While a chamber orchestra complete with Japanese wind, string, and percussion instruments, it has a broad repertoire using all or some of the instruments, or at times a single instrument in solo performance, in forms approaching the Western style of composition. Yonin-no-kai Tokyo is also making active efforts in this field both in Japan and abroad.

JAPANESE RECORDINGS
CLASSICAL DISCOGRAPHY

"The Hiroshima Masses." Chorus, *koto* orchestra, and soloists of Elizabeth University. Lyrichord 7180.

"Japan: Semi-classical and Folk Music." EMI/Odeon C064-17967.

"Japan: Traditional Vocal and Instrumental Music," featuring *shakuhachi, biwa, koto,* and *shamisen;* soloists of the Ensemble Nipponia. Nonesuch Explorer H-72072.

"Japanese *Shamisen;* Chamber Music with *Koto* and *Shakuhachi.*" Lyrichord 7209.

"The Metropolis Wind Quintet, Art of Woodwind Quintet." PolyGram Special Imports K25C 134.

"Hiroko Nakamura Plays Piano Favorites." CBS/Sony 30AC 66-7.

"Nippon: Impressions From the West," featuring compositions of Ohki, Fukai, Kiyose, and Yamada; by Shigenolou Yanaoka and the Yomiuri Symphony Orchestra. Takanori Kobayashi, piano. Varese Sarabande VX80161.

Aki Takahashi, "Piano Space I." Toshiba/EMI 60153.

Toru Takemitsu. "Quatrain: A Flock Descends into the Pentagonal Garden." Deutsche Grammophon, DG2531210. "Quatrain II; Waterways: Waves." RCA ARL1-3483.

Tokyo String Quartet. "Complete Quartets of Bartok." Deutsche Grammophon 3-DG2740235

Yoshio Unno with the CBS Symphony Orchestra, conducted by Tadashi Mori. CBS/Sony 22AC 184.

JAPANESE RECORDINGS
■
JAZZ DISCOGRAPHY
■

TOSHIKO AKIYOSHI/LEW TABACKIN BIG BAND, "Long Yellow Road." RCA JPL1-1350.

TERUMASA HINA, "Double Rainbow." Columbia 37420.

TOSHIYUKI HONDO & BURNING WAVES, Spanish Waves." PolyGram Special Imports K28P-6051.

EIJI KATAMURA, "Swing Eiji." Concord CJ 152.

RYO KAWASAKI, "Trinkets and Things." Timeless SJP 123.

TAKEHISA KOSUGI, "Kosugi." Bellows 003.

KIKUCHI MASABUMI, "Matris." Catalyst 7916.

MIKIO "MICKEY" MASUDO, Corazon. PolyGram Special Imports SRS 8004.

SADAO WATANABE, Fill Up the Night. Elektra/Musician 60297.

YOSUKE YAMASHITA, Breathtake. West 54 Records 8009.

MASUO YOSHIAKI, "The Song Is You and Me." PolyGram Special Imports K28P

JAPAN: USING THE ATLAS AND THE ALMANAC

Three mini-units for Junior High School Library Skills Lessons

Prepared by

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Summer, 1987

JAPAN: USING THE ATLAS AND THE ALMANAC

I. INTRODUCTION

The country of Japan is being studied by many groups of outsiders today because of its unique geography, its cultural blend of tradition and technology, and its rapid rise in prominence as a world leader in politics and economy. Using Japan as the theme for three fifty-five minute lessons, I will be leading 7th and 8th grade students in hands-on experience in library skills by using the atlas and maps to study the geography of Japan, the almanac to study facts about Japan, and an introduction to the country of Japan for special education students.

My philosophy in teaching library skills is to use a hands-on approach--every student has his own atlas or almanac, map or globe--and every lesson takes a theme which will bring about peripheral learning. Reference books are simply tools to be used to gain information; therefore, the teaching of the use of those books should "appear" to be secondary to the student. The particular theme for the lesson should "appear" to be the major emphasis.

II. UNIT RESOURCES

You should locate everything your library has about Japan including reference books, geography and travel books, fiction about Japan, maps, globes, posters.

The bulletin board is a good place to begin. A world map should be placed in the center with a star representing your town and a ribbon stretched to the city of Tokyo. Other maps of Japan may also be displayed, but one in particular should be a relief may similar to the map the students will find in their atlases. Posters may be used around the room, along with any artifacts you may secure including porcelain items, a paper lantern, an incense burner. You might want to hang a colorful kite from the ceiling over your teaching area--I used nylon fishing line to hang a kite with a 30 foot tail in the center of the library.

How unique you make the lesson will depend on your resources and your teaching style. If you are comfortable in a kimono and getas, by all means wear them. Limit the amount of time you use to introduce and present the lesson so that there will be time for student questions.

LESSON ONE: JAPAN: USING ATLASES AND MAPS

Background: Students have had one lesson in the fundamentals of using maps and atlases in the classroom. This lesson will apply their skills to a particular area--Japan.

Objectives:

1. The student will use maps, atlases and globes to locate information about the geography of Japan.
2. The Student will use the thematic maps of the atlas to locate and name special information about Japan.
3. The student will become better acquainted with the use of the atlas index to locate geographical data.
4. The student will view slides of Japan as a country and culture, and will be given the opportunity to ask questions about the country.

Resources:
1. A large world map.
2. At least one map of Japan. (Available free from: Japan Information Service
Consulate General of Japan
299 Park Avenue, 18th Floor
NY, NY 10017)
3. Posters--available free from Japan Air Lines or the Japanese Consulate General Offices. Since several domestic air lines are now flying to Japan, you might also check with their offices for posters--American, Delta, Northwest. Also check with travel agents.

Lesson Plans:

We are going to look at a unique area of the world today--the country of Japan. Have any of you ever been to Japan? Have you ever met a person from Japan? Can you think of anything you have in your house from Japan? What are some of the cars that come from Japan? (mention liaison between Chevrolet-Toyota and Chrysler-Mitsubishi) When you think about products that are made in Japan and sold in the United States, what kinds of things do you identify? Do you eat any of the same foods the Japanese eat? What does the country of Japan look like--is it similar to the plains of West Texas? Do they have tornadoes and dust storms in Japan? (Briefly call attention to maps, posters, artifacts displayed)

For today's lesson you will find a world map and a map of Japan on the bulletin board. On your table, you will find a worksheet and a copy of the world atlas, a copy of a map of Asia, and a globe. In order to locate the information on the worksheet you will need to locate the map of Asia, and the map of Japan in the index. Be sure to put your name and heading on your worksheet. You have 20 minutes to complete the worksheet. We will grade it in class at the end of the class period.

(Grade worksheets by showing slides in order of the questions on the worksheet. Allow time for student questions. Pass out snacks. Say "Sayonara", bow and dismiss class.)

JAPAN: USING ATLASES AND MAPS

Answer the following questions by using the World Atlas, the globe or the map of Asia on your table. Remember to use the index in the front of the atlas.

1. Although Japan is an island country, of what continent is it considered a part?

_____

2. What two bodies of water surround the country of Japan? 1._____

_____ 2._____

3. How many major islands make up the country of Japan? _____

Name them. 1. _____ 2._____

3. _____ 4. _____

4. What three countries are Japan's closest neighbors to the north and the west? 1. _____ 2. _____

3. _____

5. What is the capital city of Japan? _____

6. Nagasaki and Hiroshima were the two cities destroyed by the atom bomb in World War II. Which city is further south? _____

7. On which island is Sapporo, the city of winter sports? _____

8. Using the special thematic maps on Asia, answer the following questions.

a. How much rainfall does Japan get annually? _____

b. Is Japan heavily or lightly populated? _____

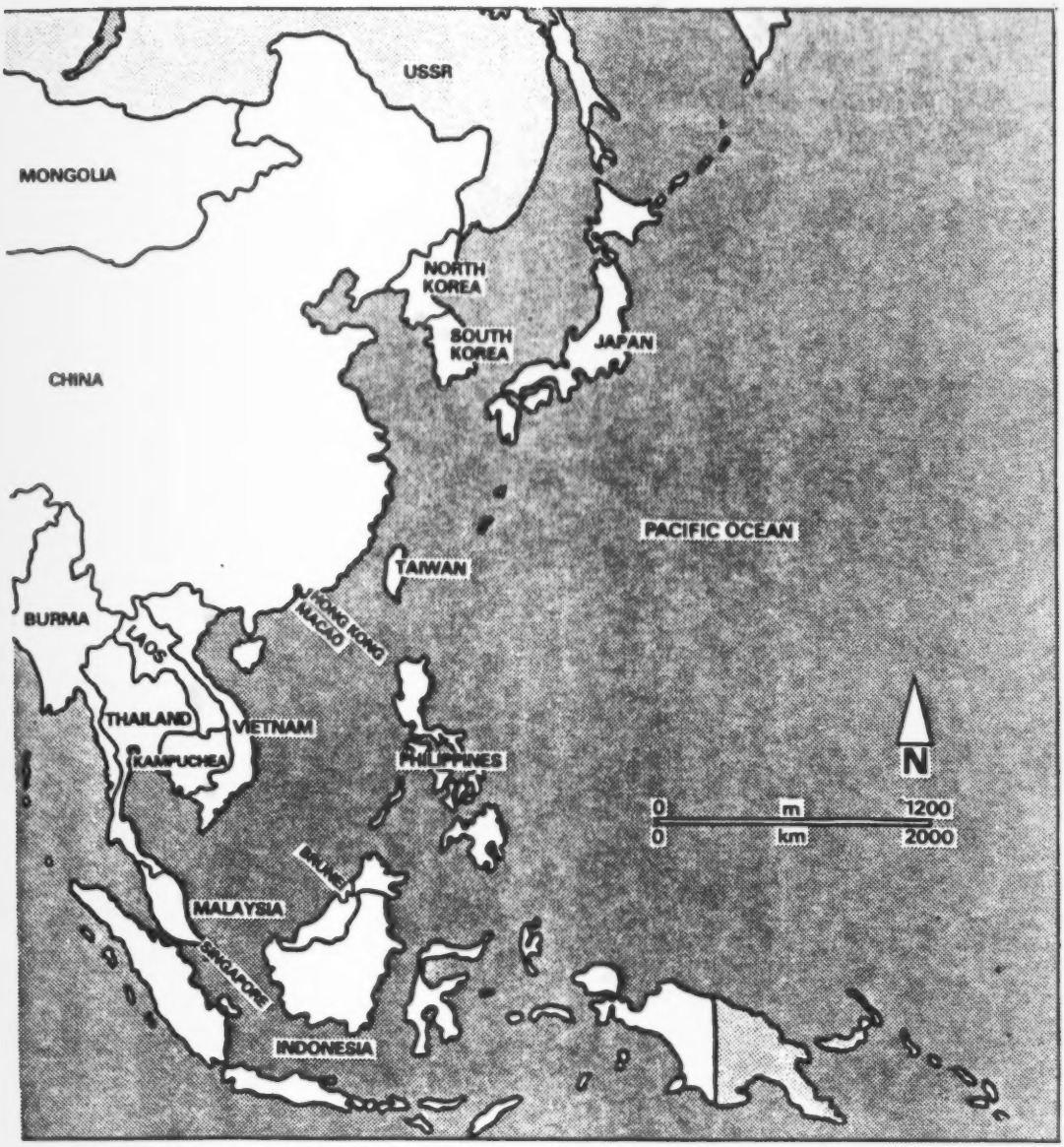
c. What are two kinds of energy production plants in Japan? _____

_____

d. Name three kinds of natural hazards in Japan. _____

_____

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC



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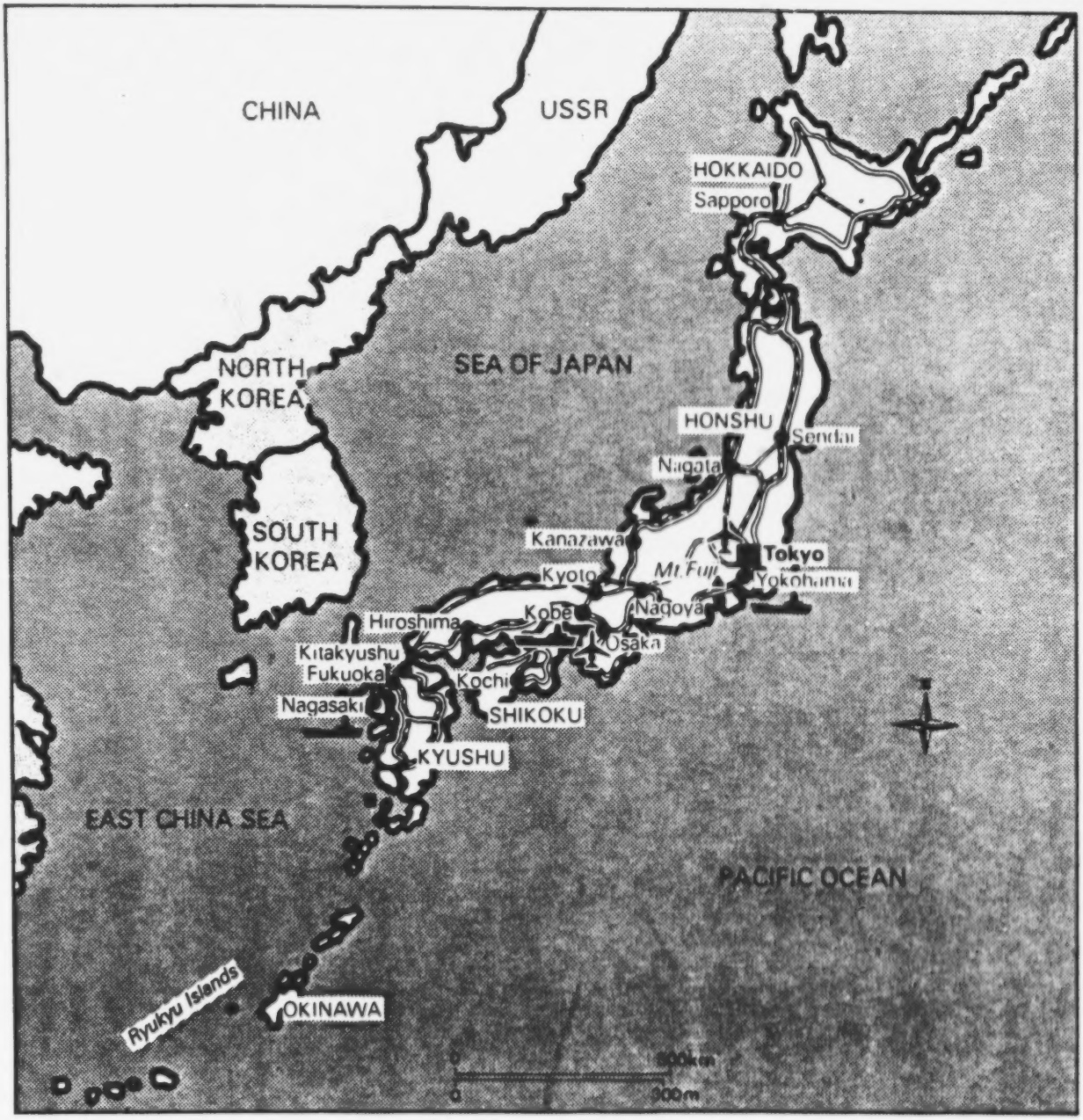
JAPAN



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LESSON TWO: FACTS ABOUT JAPAN: USING THE ALMANAC

Background:

The student has had one lesson on the use of the almanac previously and has become familiar with the general index. In this lesson, the almanac will be used as a tool to find out information about Japan.

Objectives:

1. The student will review his skills in using the general index of the almanac to locate facts about Japan.
2. The student will receive hands-on experience in using the almanac by having the personal use of an almanac.
3. The student will view slides about Japan to stimulate his interest in finding out facts about the country.

Lesson Format:

I will start this lesson with a series of slides about the country of Japan. I will choose views that have the country, the people and particularly young people in school, at leisure, at home. I will use about ten minutes at the beginning of the class period.

Today's lesson will focus on the almanac and information we can gain from using the almanac. Your worksheet contains questions about Japan which will give us a few more facts about the country. Remember to use the general index in the front of the almanac to locate the answers. We will grade these papers at the end of the class if we have time, or we may see a few more slides if everyone is finished. If you would like to see more slides, I will grade your papers and give them to your teacher by tomorrow.

FACTS ABOUT JAPAN: USING THE ALMANAC

Use the general index in the front of the WORLD ALMANAC AND BOOK OF FACTS to locate the answers to the following questions. Answers must be exact.

1. What is the land area of Japan in square miles? _____

2. What is the head of the Japanese government called? _____

3. What is the population of Tokyo? _____

4. When it is 12 noon in New York City, what time is it in Tokyo? _____

_____ What day? _____

5. Are there any volcanoes in Japan? _____

6. What is the Japanese "Congress" called? _____

7. Where does Tokyo rank in cities by population? _____

8. Who is the prime minister of Japan? _____

9. How does the population of Tokyo compare with Houston, TX? _____

_____ _____

10. How does the land area of Japan compare with Texas? _____

_____ _____

11. Using the land area and population of Japan, how many people are there per square mile?

(Population divided by square miles) *

12. What is the average rainfall in the city of Tokyo? _____

13. Are there any hydroelectric plants in Japan? _____

14. What is the tallest mountain in Japan? _____

15. What American state lies closest to Japan? _____

*Use this space for 11.)

What Do You Know About Japan and U.S. Influence on Japan?

A Teaching Unit

For

Secondary Social Studies Teachers

Prepared by

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College of Education

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June 12, 1987

Introduction Lesson for a study of the nation of Japan.

Objectives:

1. A lesson that can be expanded or reduced depending on the time available.
2. Student interest and curiosity about Japan will be increased.
3. Various aspects of contemporary Japan's culture will be discussed.
4. Location, size and general geography will be discussed.
5. Contemporary U.S.-Japan relationships and issues will be described.

Strategy of teaching the Lesson:

1. Japan is a major economic and political friend of the U.S. . Most students have a very limited understanding of Japan and its location. This lesson will "pin-point" the students' lack of information.

2. Through the use of specific questions (4) and overhead transparencies, Japan's culture and its relationship to the U.S. will be discussed. (Transparencies #5 and #6.)

3. Additional lessons related to specific areas of Japanese culture can be developed and added.

Resources:

1. Nippon The Land and Its People, (Chapter 1, Sections: 1,2,7) Nippon Steel Corporation, 1986.
2. The Japanese, Edwin O. Reischauer, (Chapters 1,5,11,35) 1981.
3. What I Want to Know About Japan, (Chapters 1,2,3,4,11,18) Japan Information Center, 1983.

What Do You Know About Japan?
Curiosity Arouser

1. Signal responses from the group
   a. "How many of you hav seen something or read something about Japan in the last three months?"
      Raise your hands.
      Briefly discuss the "where. what and why" about student responses.
   b. "From what you have seen of heard, is Japan a friend of the U.S. or an enemy?"
      Raise your hand if you think "a friend."
      Raise your hand if you think "an enemy."
      Raise your hand if you're not sure of either choice.

55

(1A)

(SUN) 日

(ORIGIN) 本

"NIHON"

LAND OF THE RISING SUN

C. Let's see how interested in Japan you really are.
You've just answered the "Jack pot" question on a T.V. game show.
You have two choices from which to select your prize.
Option One: An all expense paid trip (food, travel housing, spending money, etc.) two week trip to Japan worth $6,000.
Option Two" Stay in the U.S. and receive a check for $3,000.
Raise your hand if you would choose the "trip."
Raise your hand if you would choose the "check."
Raise your hand if you would refuse both options and go home happy in the fact you had know the right answer to a hard question.
Briefly discuss student responses.

2. Directed Student Seat Work
   a. Distribute "What do you know about Japan" question sheet.
   b. Instruct students to be slow and deliberate with their answers. If they "do not know" a possible answer, print D.N.K. as a response.
   c. Allow students 15-20 minutes to write their responses. Give any verbal clarifications that might be requested.

3. Teacher Instruction
   a. Using "Japan compared to the U.S." map, overhead sheet, discuss with class the correct answers to parts (B) and (C) on their question sheets.
   b. Students, on their own sheets of paper, take (copy) the information on part (A) from overhead sheet, "Japanese Culture."

WHAT DO YOU KNOW ABOUT JAPAN?

(A.) CIRCLE THE WORDS YOU RECOGNIZE... GIVE A BRIEF EXPLANATION.

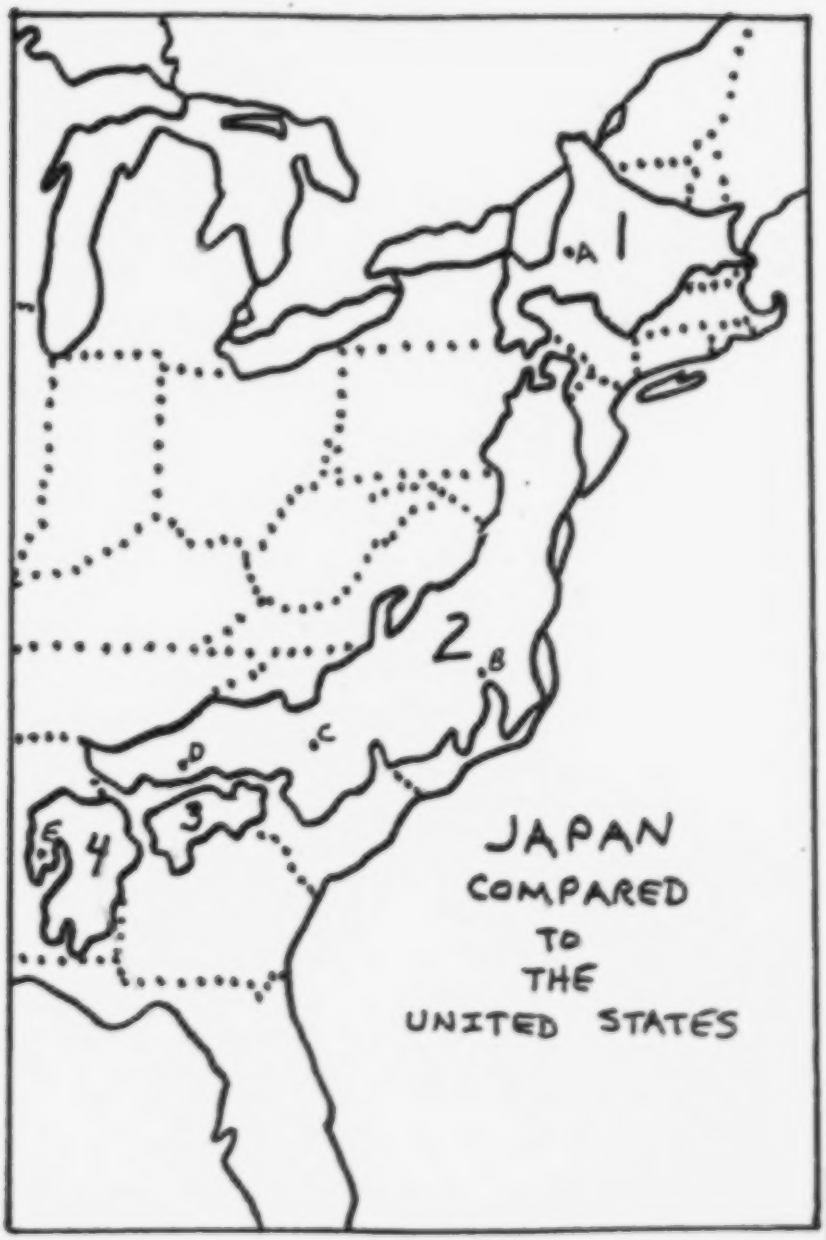
1. KIMONO
2. SAMURAI
3. SUSHI
4. TOKYO
5. YEN
6. KYUSHU
7. SUMO
8. HIROSHIMA

(B.) ANSWER AS MANY QUESTIONS AS YOU CAN.

1. HOW MANY MILES BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE WEST COAST OF THE U.S.? _____
2. HOW MANY TOTAL ISLANDS MAKE UP THE NATION OF JAPAN? _____
3. GIVE THE NAMES OF JAPAN'S FOUR LARGEST ISLANDS _____, _____, _____, _____
4. WHAT BODY OF WATER SEPARATES JAPAN FROM THE WEST COAST OF THE U.S.? _____
5. WHAT IS JAPAN'S POPULATION? _____
6. HOW DOES JAPAN'S POPULATION SIZE COMPARE TO THE U.S.? _____

(C.) TRUE OR FALSE: PUT (T) OR (F) IN FRONT OF EACH STATEMENT

— 10% OF ALL THE WORLD'S ACTIVE VOLCANOES ARE IN JAPAN.
— JAPAN EXPERIENCES HURRICANES (TYPHOONS).
— JAPAN EXPERIENCES EARTHQUAKES.
— LESS THAN 1/4 OF JAPAN'S LAND HAS VEGETATION.
— 70% OF JAPAN'S LAND IS MOUNTAINS.
— DEER, RACCOON, WOLVES, FOX, ANTELOPE ARE NATIVE TO JAPAN.
— JAPAN HAS NO AIR OR WATER POLLUTION PROBLEMS.
— JAPAN IS THE SIXTH MOST POPULATED NATION IN THE WORLD



JAPAN COMPARED TO THE UNITED STATES

FROM THE OVERHEAD DISCUSSION, FILL IN THE BLANKS:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

A. _____
B. _____
C. _____
D. _____
E. _____

JAPAN'S POPULATION TODAY _____

HOW DOES THE POPULATION SIZE COMEPARE TO THE U.S.? _____

WHAT BODY OF WATER SEPARATES THE U.S. FROM JAPAN? _____

WHAT IS THE ANNUAL RAINFALL OF JAPAN? _____ INCHES

WHAT IS THE APPROXIMATE DISTANCE BETWEEN THE WEST COAST OF THE U.S. AND JAPAN? _____ MILES

WHAT PERCENTAGE OF THE WORLD'S ACTIVE VOLCANOES IS IN JAPAN? _____ %

JAPANESE CULTURE

"NIHONGO"
"NIPPON"

KIMONO

- CLOTHING
- SILK OR COTTON
- WRAPPED AROUND BODY... TIED WITH A BELT
- WORN BY BOTH MEN AND WOMEN
- FROM CHINA BY BUDDHIST MONKS

SAMURAI

- FEUDAL WARRIORS
- GREAT EMPHASIS ON BRAVERY, HONOR, SELF DISCIPLINE, ACCEPTANCE OF DEATH
- HONORABLE SUICIDE IF NEEDED ("SEPPUKU" "HARAKIRI")

SUSHI

- RAW FISH. SOY SAUCE.
- THIN SLICES ON TOP OF SMALL BLOCKS OF RICE

TOKYO

- CAPITAL CITY
- OVER 8½ (1981) MILLION PEOPLE

KYUSHU

- SOUTHERN MOST OF JAPAN'S
- 4 MAJOR ISLANDS

HIROSHIMA

- HONSHŪ ISLAND
- 1981: 850,000
- A-BOMB/AUG. 6, 1945

YEN

- "IKURA DESU KA?" HOW MUCH IS IT
- MONEY (OKANE)
- PAPER (SATSU)
- COIN (KŌKA)
- SYMBOL ¥
- DURING U.S. OCCUPATION 365 ¥ = 1 DOLLAR
- 1970's 265 ¥ = 1 DOLLAR
- 1987 140 ¥ = 1 DOLLAR

SUMO

- WRESTLING
- 250 LBS. AND UP
- CIRCLE RING
- RITUALS
- PUSH OUT OF CIRCLE
- JESSE KUHAULUA "TAKAMIYAMA"

Lesson to inform students of the great influence the U.S. has had on modern day Japan.

Objectives:

1. A lesson that can be expanded or reduced depending on the time available.
2. A brief sketch of Japanese history from the last "Shogun" (1868) to General McArthur (1945).
3. Students will discuss the U.S. attitude toward defeated Japan.
4. Students will discuss the impact of General McArthur on Japan current form of government.
5. Students will have an increased awareness of the U.S. -Japan political ties.

Strategy of Teaching the Lesson:

1. Using a question sheet "U.S. Influence on Japan" (10) and overhead "U.S.-Japan Contacts: 1630-1945" (11) and overhead "March 6, 1947- new Japanese constitution" (12), students will be guided through a period of Japanese history concluding with the acceptance of their new constitution.
2. Visual presentations of information and class discussion for reinforcement are the classroom techniques used.

Resources:

1. Nippon The Land and Its People, (Chapter 1, Section 2; Chapter 2, Sections: 1,2), Nippon Steel Corporation, 1986.
2. The Japanese, Edwin O. Reischauer, (Chapters 3,7,8,10, 11) 1981.
3. "Bringing Democracy to Japan," Bill of Rights in Action, Spring 1987/ Volume 3. Number 4.
4. "Japan's Century of Rapid Progress," Scholastic Update, April 6, 1987.

U.S. INFLUENCE ON JAPAN

Curiosity Arouser:

1. Signal responses from the group
   a. "During World War II, on which side did the Japanese fight?"
      Raise your hand if you think "U.S."
      Raise your hand if you think "Germany."
      Briefly discuss student responses.

   b. "During the war, Hirohito was the Japanese Emperor. Does Japan have an emperor today?"
      Raise your hand if you think "Yes."
      Raise your hand if you think "No."
      Riase hand if you're not sure of either answer.
      Briefly discuss student responses.

   c. "Japan lost the war. A lot of lives were lost, both American and Japanese. How should the defeated nation have been treated?"
      Raise your hand if you think "Punished."
      Raise your hand if you think "Helped to rebuild."
      Raise your hand if you're not sure of either answer.
      Briefly discuss student responses.

2. Directed student seat work.

   a. Distribute "U.S. Influence on Japan" sheet.
   b. Instruct students to be deliberate and attempt to answer the questions. If they do not have a possible answer, print "D.N.K." for "do not know" as a response.
   c. Allow students 15-20 minutes to write their responses. Give any verbal clarifications that might be requested.

3. Teacher Instruction

   a. Using an overhead transparency indentified as "U.S.-Japan Contacts: 1630-1945," Discuss the answers to the "U.S. Influence on Japan sheet.
   b. Students on their own paper, take or copy the information from the overhead transparency identified as "March 6, 1947 - New (Current) Japanese Constitution."
   c. Group discussion questions:
      Did the U.S. punish or help Japan?
      Should General McArthur have "forced" Japan to develop their current constitution?

U.S. INFLUENCE ON JAPAN

1. WHEN (YEAR) DID THE FIRST AMERICAN REPRESENTATIVE SEEK TRADE WITH JAPAN? _____

2. WHAT NAME WAS GIVEN TO THE ANCIENT JAPANESE MILITARY RULERS? _____

3. SELECT THE APPROPRIATE TIME PERIOD ANSWER AND CIRCLE IT. WHEN DID JAPAN BEGIN TO WEAR WESTERN CULTURE CLOTHES AND BEGIN TO DEVELOP GIANT INDUSTRIES? 1870's 1920's 1950's

4. DURING WWI, DID JAPAN FIGHT ON THE BRITISH/AMERICAN SIDE OR THE GERMAN SIDE? _____

5. AFTER WWI, WHAT REASON DID JAPANESE LEADERS GIVE FOR NEEDING AN EMPIRE? _____

6. GIVE THE DATE PEARL HARBOR WAS ATTACKED. _____

7. HOW MANY YEARS DID U.S. SOLDIERS OCCUPY JAPAN AFTER WW II? _____

8. WHAT WAS THE "BASIC OBJECTIVE" OF THE U.S. IN OCCUPYING DEFEATED JAPAN? _____

9. WHO HAS BEEN DESCRIBED AS AN "AMERICAN SHOGUN"? _____

10. WHO IS THE EMPEROR OF JAPAN TODAY? _____

11. IS JAPAN A DEMOCRATIC OR COMMUNISTIC NATION TODAY? _____

U.S. - JAPAN CONTACTS : 1630-1945

IN THE 1630's

- JAPAN WAS "THE CLOSED COUNTRY". (SAKOKU)
- ONLY A FEW CHINESE AND DUTCH TRADERS WERE PERMITTED IN...
- MILITARY LEADERS CALLED "SHOGUNS" RULED DIFFERENT PARTS OF JAPAN.

1868

YOUNG SAMURAI WARRIORS OVERTHREW THE LAST "SHOGUN"...

WANTED TO MAKE JAPAN A MODERN WORLD POWER

NEW RULER ESTABLISHED - EMPEROR MEIJI

GOVERNMENT REFORMS :
- MODERN TAX SYSTEM - LEGAL CODE
- ARMY of CIVILIAN DRAFTEES
- EDUCATION FOR CHILDREN - POSTAL NETWORK

CONSTITUTION : 1889
- NOT TRUE DEMOCRACY
- POWER IN THE HANDS OF A FEW

1853

- U.S. COMMODORE MATTHEW PERRY ATTEMPTED TO OPEN JAPAN FOR TRADE WITH THE U.S.

1858

- THE FIRST U.S.-JAPAN TRADE TREATY SIGNED

THE 1920's

- GIANT INDUSTRY MITSUBUSHI
- POLITICAL PARTIES
- STRONG MILITARY
- MEN OVER 25 COULD VOTE
- HIROHITO EMPEROR (1926)

THE 1930's

- JAPAN INVADES MANCHURIA, CHINA
- ALLIE of NAZI GERMANY

THE 1940's

- DEC. 7, 1941 PEARL HARBOR

AUG. 14, 1945
JAPAN SIGNS UNCONDITIONAL SURRENDER

MAR. 6, 1947
- NEW CONSTITUTION ACCEPTED BY JAPAN
- U.S. APPROVAL

MARCH 6, 1947 - NEW (CURRENT) JAPANESE CONSTITUTION.

AFTER WW I - JAPANESE LEADERS HAD ARGUED JAPAN NEEDED AN EMPIRE (MORE LAND) TO FEED THEIR 60 MILLION PEOPLE, NEEDED MORE FERTILE LAND

THEIR EMPIRE BUILDING/EXPANSION LED TO WW II.

AFTER WW II - THE "BASIC OBJECTIVE" WAS TO DEMILITARIZE JAPAN

GEN. DOUGLAS McARTHUR (AMERICAN SHOGUN)

- APPOINTED BY ALLIED POWERS TO OVERSEE JAPAN'S OCCUPATION
- REPRESENTED U.S. VIEWS - NOT ALLIED DESIRES
- OPPOSED PUTTING EMPEROR ON TRIAL FOR WAR CRIMES
- FAVORED (MANDATED) DRASTIC CHANGES IN THE MEIJI CONSTITUTION
- OPPOSED MILITARY GOVERNING OF JAPAN
- FAVORED KEEPING JAPANESE "DIET" (CONGRESS) MODIFIED EMPEROR ROLE - NOT DIVINE - SYMBOL SELF GOVERNING BY JAPANESE OFFICIALS
- PERMITTED WAR TRIALS OF 6 WAR TIME OFFICIALS FOR WAR CRIMES - 6 CONVICTED AND HANGED
- PUSHED HIS OWN "MODEL CONSTITUTION" FOR JAPANESE ACCEPTANCE.
- BRITISH SYSTEM: PRIME MINISTER AND CABINET ELECTED BY THE "DIET".
- ART. 9 "... RENOUNCE WAR AS A SOVERIGN RIGHT..." ABOLISHED ALL LAND, SEA AND AIR FORCES
- WOMEN SUFFRAGE ... LABOR UNIONS ... EDUCATION FOR ALL

THREE JAPANESE MAPS

A Teaching Unit for Secondary World History and Geography Teachers

Prepared by

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San Antonio, Texas 78212

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Lubbock, Texas 79409

June 9, 1987

Three Japanese Maps

Unit Introduction

These three maps-

Japan: Location

Japan place name geography

The geopolitical importance of Japan for the Soviet Union

-may be used singly or together at any secondary level. The first two aim at building a basic geographic familiarity with the major Japanese islands (the first one uses one of the five geographic themes of the National Council for Geographic Education, an approach publicized by five million "five themes of geography" maps distributed free to schools throughout the country in 1986 by the National Geographic Society). The third map attempts to attract attention to the concept of geopolitics by turning usual map convention almost on its head.

Resources

Except for minor enrichment questions, all material is self-contained, with occasional references to maps contained in all world geography and world history textbooks.

日本

FIRST MAP – JAPAN: LOCATION

Overview

This map assumes some familiarity with the standard coördinate system for defining points on the surface of the earth and with the concept underlying time zones. It requires, in part, use of higher levels of thinking (as explained, for instance, by Bloom's taxonomy). Some questions relate to concepts in mathematics and physics.

Lesson Objectives

1. To familiarize students with the location of Japan.
2. To provide an opportunity to practice latitude/longitude, time zone, and other spatial geography skills.

Lesson Resources

1. The included map "Japan: LOCATION" and question sheet.
2. World time zone map (time zone ring on a globe may be adequate). If 145°E. longitude is used as a base for Japan's time, then the time in Japan may be derived from the fact that each 15° makes a difference of one hour [360° in a circle, divided by 24 hours in a day].

Comments on Accompanying Questions

A. 1. Parallels are equidistant; meridians vary continuously as they converge at the poles.

2. round (Soap bubbles, planets, etc. maximize volume with a minimum possible surface; therefore, the sperical shape is universal for such bodies in nature. A circle is the two-dimensional equivalent.)

3. Much coastline for the area.

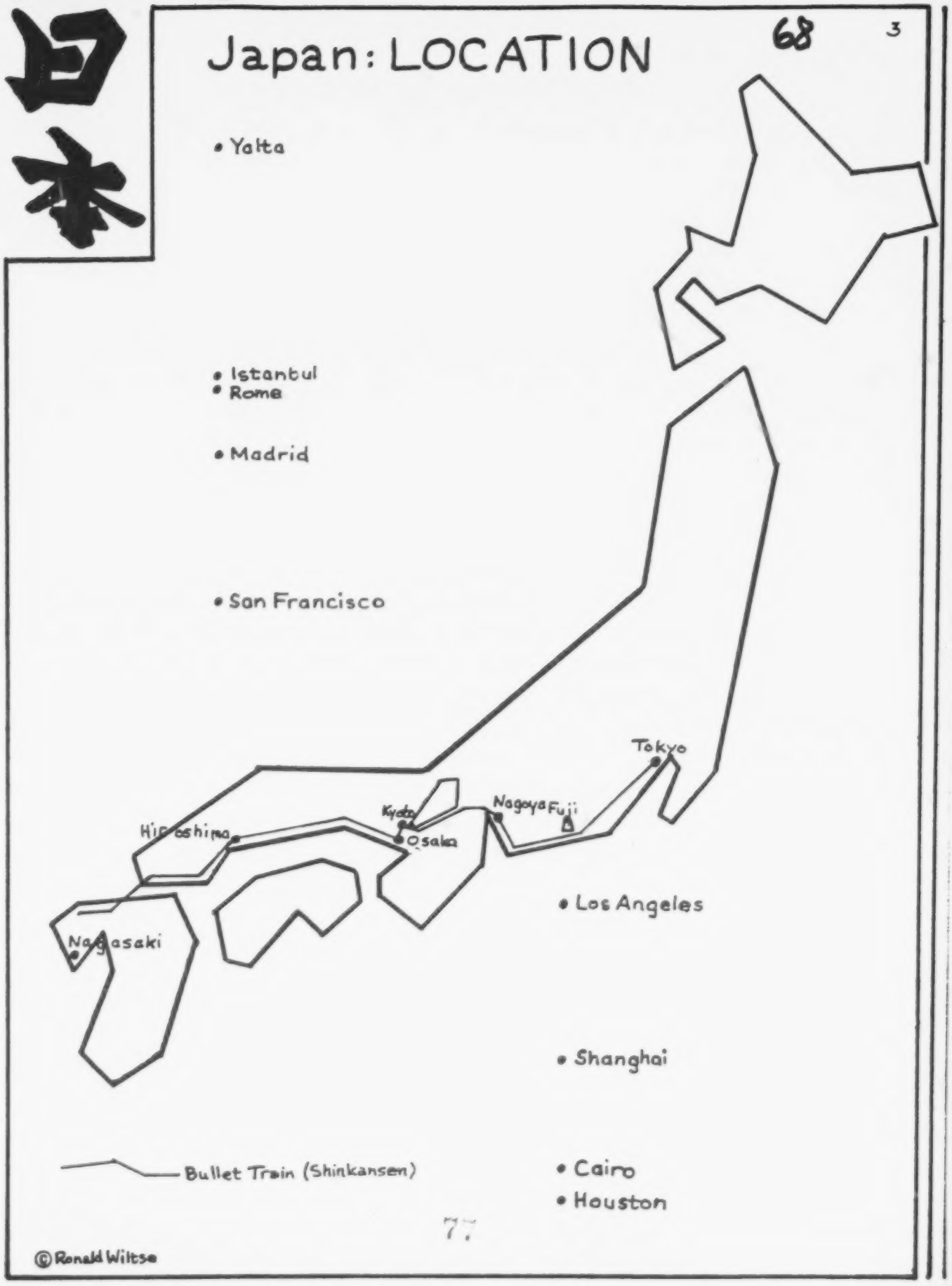
B. 1. Japan is ⌐↓ hours ahead.

PST	17	
MST	16	PDST (i.e., e.g., Pacific Daylight Savings Time)
CST	15	MDST
EST	14	CDST
	13	EDST

2. The International Date Line means that while 7-11 hours <u>could</u> be subtracted, one day must also be <u>added</u>.

C. 1. Even though key cities are already on the map, this may be challenging to some students.

Japan: LOCATION



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日本

Discussion questions for the map "Japan: LOCATION"

A. Longitude, latitude, & shape
1. Japan can be contained in a box 16° x 19°. Why is a longitude degree not the same length as a latitude degree?
2. What shape (for a given area) would an island (country) have in order to have the shortest coastline (border)? [Hint: why are soap bubbles and larger bodies (planets, stars) always spherical? Coincidence?]
3. Looking at the general shape of the Japanese islands, what conclusion can you come to about the ratio of area to length of coastline (border) compared to many other countries?

B. Time zones
1. How many hours ahead of us is Japan?
2. Thought question: Why is it difficult to go the other direction —west— and speak of Japan as being so many hours behind us?
3. If we are on Daylight Saving Time and Japan is not (Japan does not, in fact, use DST) how would this affect the time difference?

C. Comparing cities and countries of the same latitudes
1. Without looking at a world map, try to name countries at the same latitude as Japan.
2. Now try—also without looking— to name countries north and south of Japan.
3. Looking at a world map, trace the 35th north parallel (i.e., a line that passes just south of Tokyo) all the way around the world.
4. Likewise, follow the 140th east meridian north & south.
5. Locate the cities indicated on the margins of the map on a world map. They are located on latitudes as indicated here.

SECOND MAP—JAPAN PLACE NAME GEOGRAPHY

Overview

For the beginner, the names of the four major islands plus the names and locations of a few major cities and Mt. Fuji form a substantial accomplishment. Two mnemonic devices are offered here: 1) representing the islands as something else visually memorable (a device pioneered by Hollis Holling in Paddle to the Sea [Houghton Mifflin, 1941] to teach the Great Lakes) and 2) a silly sentence whose words use the first letters of the list of objects to be learned.

Lesson Objectives

1. To learn the names of the four major Japanese islands.
2. To learn the names of some major Japanese cities, along with their general locations and relation to Fuji mountain.

Resources

Three overhead transparencies made from the accompanying handouts (or drawn on a chalkboard).

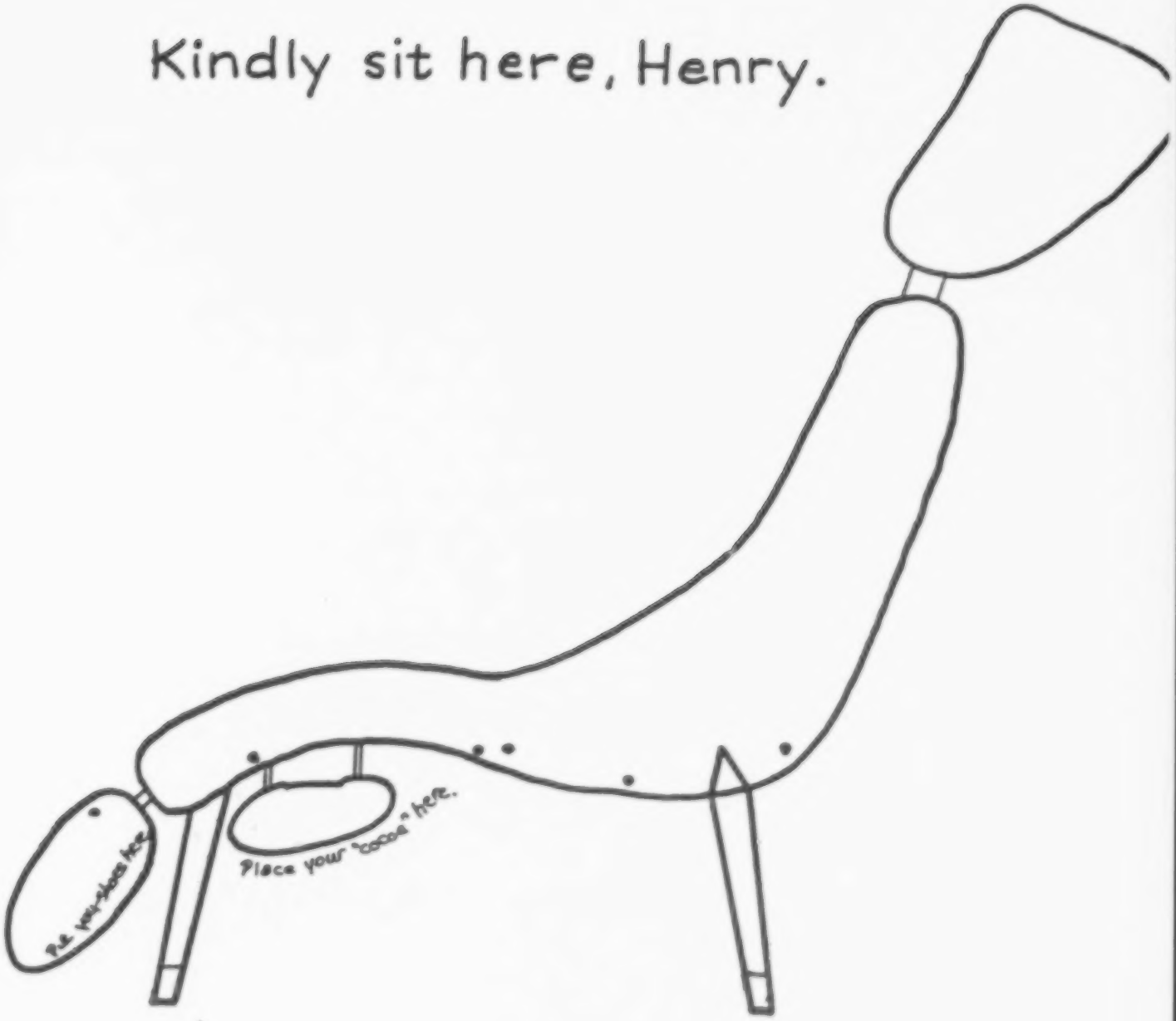
Teaching Strategy

Present unlabeled first overhead & ask students what they see. Explain the sentence before showing the second overhead. Explain the upholstery tacks before showing the third transparency. "Hirohito" could be substituted for "Henry."

Kindly	- Kyushu (footrest for "you-shoe")	These	- Tokyo
sit	- Shikoku ("cocoa" rest pun)	(fast)	(- Fuji)
here,	- Honshu	new	- Nagoya
Henry	- Hokkaido	kars	- Kyoto
		offer	- Osaka
		honorable	- Hiroshima
		fun.	- Fukuoka (not so major, but the end of the line)

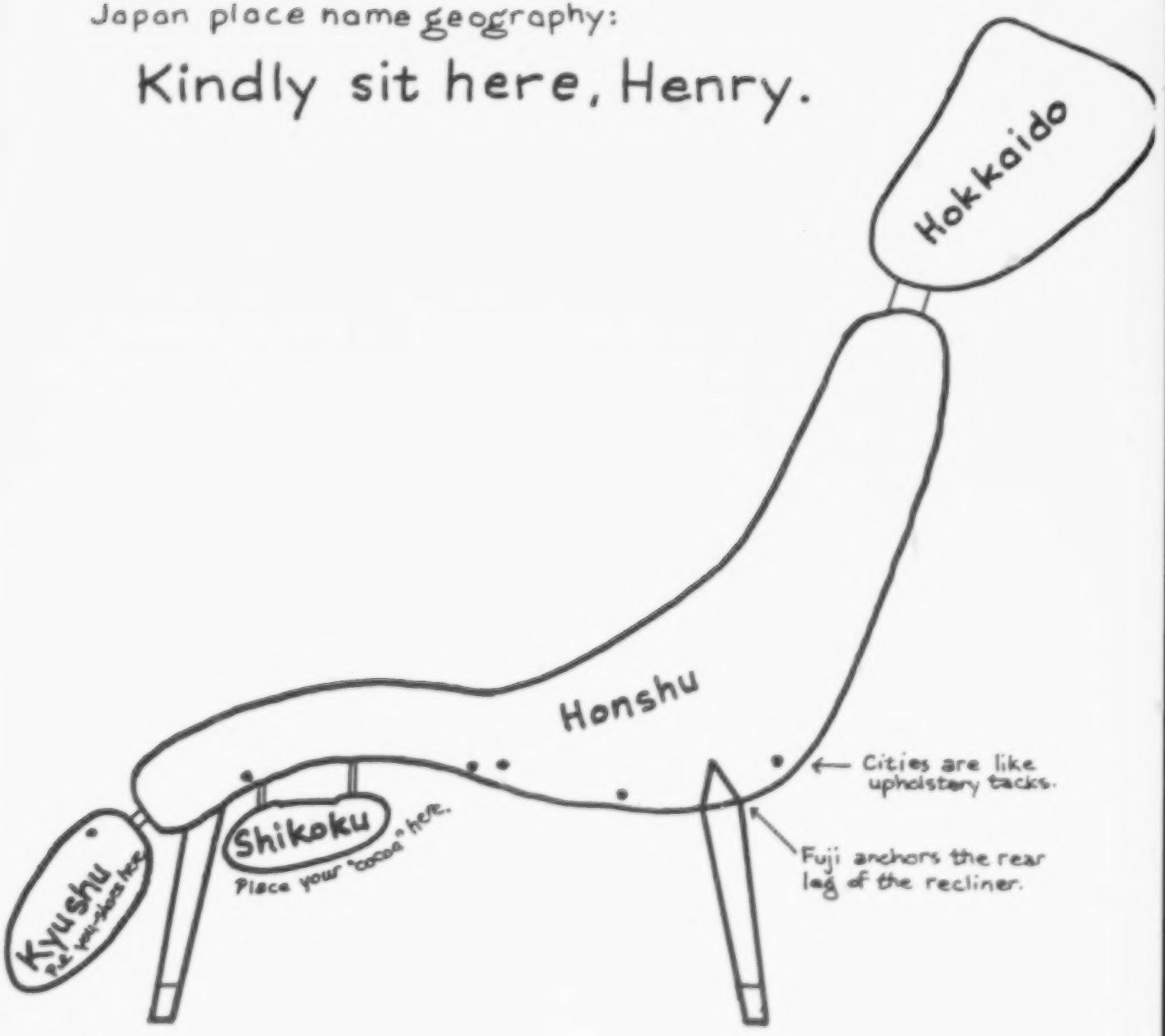
An announced, oral, ungraded quiz should be given the following day to selected students, followed by occasional random oral quizzes for the rest of the year.

Kindly sit here, Henry.



Japan place name geography:

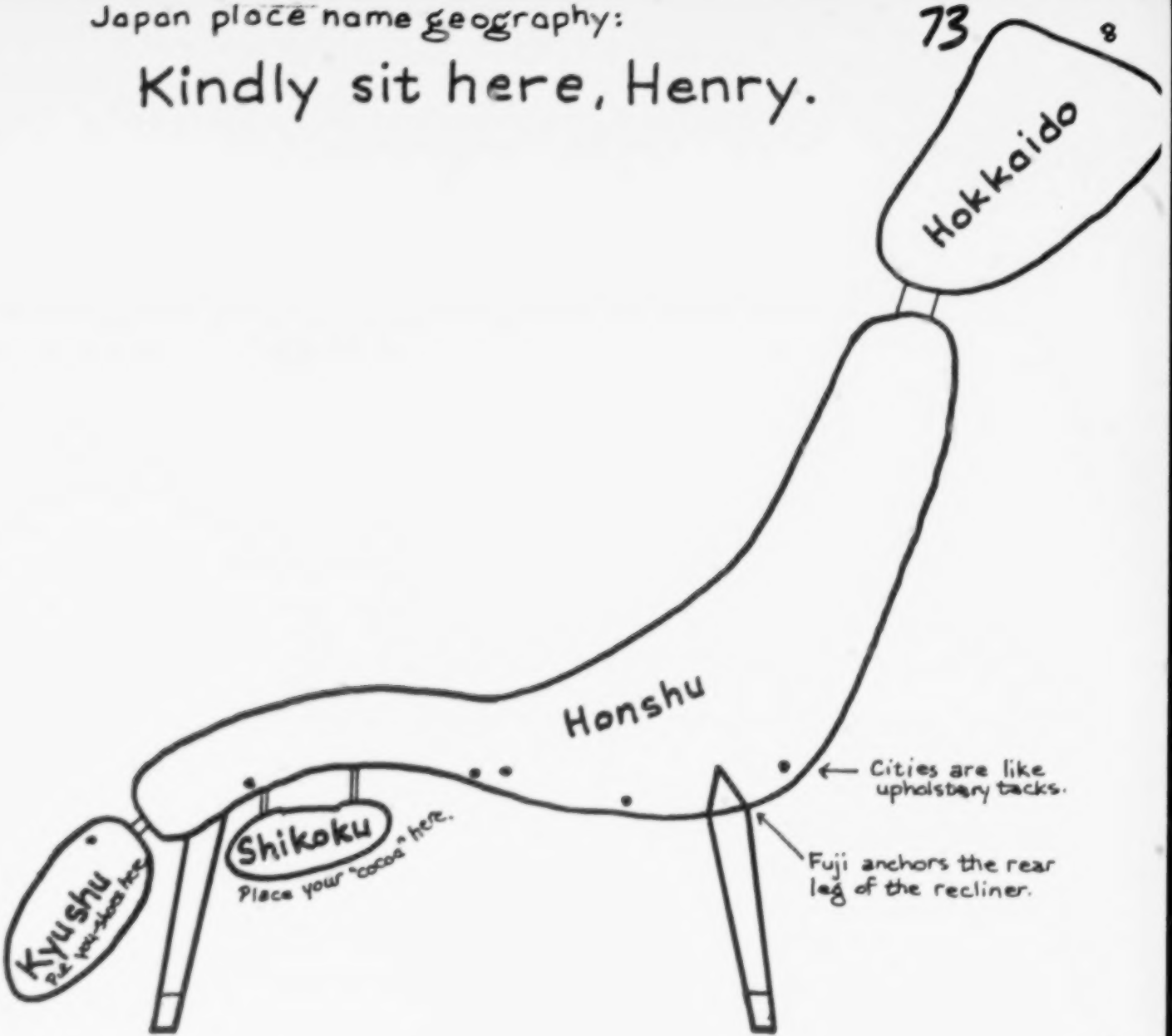
Kindly sit here, Henry.



Japan place name geography:

73 8

Kindly sit here, Henry.



Major Japanese cities along the Bullet Train (Shinkansen) route:

These (fast) new kars offer honorable fun.

[Tokyo (Fuji) Nagoya Kyoto Osaka Hiroshima Fukuoka]

©Ronald Wiltse

日本

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THIRD MAP—THE GEOPOLITICAL IMPORTANCE OF JAPAN FOR THE SOVIET UNION

Overview

This map emphasizes the concept of geopolitics and considers the geopolitical situation of Japan *vis a vis* the Soviet Union. Other geopolitical aspects of Japan's location could of course be considered.

Lesson Objectives

1. Emphasize concept of geopolitics.
2. Show three different names of the U.S.S.R.
3. Show that the usual north-at-the-top map orientation is conventional and that changing the orientation can give fresh insights.

Lesson Resources

1. The included map "The geopolitical importance of Japan for the Soviet Union: access to the Pacific" and question sheet.
2. Encyclopedia (etc.) for optional question 5.

Comments on Accompanying Questions

3. To assure continued access to the Pacific Ocean from Vladivostok.
4. It could drive a wedge in the firm alliance Japan and the U.S. enjoy.
5. The Kurile Islands and the southern half of Sakhalin were taken from Japan by the Soviet Union because of the week-long war (Aug. 8 – Aug. 14, 1945) waged by Russia against Japan as a result of her agreement at Yalta in February 1945 to do so within two months of Germany's surrender (May 8, 1945).

日本

The geopolitical importance of Japan for the Soviet Union: access to the Pacific

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日本

Discussion questions for the map "The geopolitical importance of Japan for the Soviet Union"

1. To orient yourself, briefly turn the map so that north is pointing "up."
2. Draw arrows to indicate four possible routes from Vladivostok to the open Pacific.
3. From a geopolitical point of view, why might the Soviet Union desire a friendly relationship with the United States? *
4. From a political point of view, how could friendlier relations between Japan and the U.S.S.R. affect the competition — political, economic, & ideological — between Russia and the U.S.? *
5. Minor research question: How do Sakhalin Island and the Kurile Islands complicate Russia's desire for closer relations with Japan?

* Reasoning may arrive at <u>probable</u> answers to questions like these. This is a typical <u>social studies</u> approach. The actual answers require factual evidence, acquired through research. It is this more rigorous approach that in part distinguishes such subjects as history and political science from social studies, and makes social studies a primary and secondary school subject, but not a university one

THE OCCUPATION OF JAPAN 1945 - 1952

A TEACHING UNIT FOR SECONDARY WORLD AND AMERICAN HISTORY TEACHERS

Prepared by

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GLORIA P. GARZA
SOUTHWEST PROJECT FOR TEACHING ABOUT JAPAN
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SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS

June 12, 1987

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THE OCCUPATION OF JAPAN 1945 - 1952

MARIA CARDENAS
GLORIA P. GARZA

I. Lesson One: The Constitution of 1946
   A. The role of Emperor Hirohito
   B. Article 9, clause forbidding war
   C. Rights granted the Japanese people
   D. Comparisonof the Japanese and U.S. Constitution
   E. Activities:
      1. chart showing the destruction of Japan
      2. have the students compare the two constitution for the similiarities
      3. readings

II. Lesson two: The Economic, Political, and Social Reforms
   A. Demilitarization
   B. Economics
      1. elimination of various industry
      2. agarian
      3. Zuibatsu System
   C. Political
   D. Education
   E. Women
   F. Family
   G. Social Classes
   H. Trade Unions
   I. Activities
      1. discussion
      2. posters, newspaper articles, political cartoons

III. Lesson Three: Japan on Its Own
   A. Zaibatsu System - returned in a new form
   B. Japan becomes a leader inproduction
   C. Korean War - U.S. troops withdrawn
   D. Constitution - "MacArthur" kept in tact
   E. Support for changes in Japan
   F. Activities:
      1. role playing
      2. graphs, tables, charts
      3. current events

THE OCCUPATION OF JAPAN 1945-1952

UNIT INTRODUCTION

In August, 1945, Japan surrendered to the United States thus ending World War II. Japan was devastated, most of the major cities were destroyed along with its industrial factories. The only thing Japan still had was Emperor Hirohito. The occupation of Japan from September 2, 1945-1952 saw Japan rise from devastation to a strong reckoning economic power.

These three lessons (50 minutes) will provide the students with a study of the Japanese constitution, the economic rebuilding, and Japan's control of their own destiny. In doing so they kept the best that MacArthur provided for them and rejecting those things that were not in harmony with their own culture.

The study of these lessons will attempt to make students aware of how the United States was able to build Japan's economy from nothing to a competing giant today. Japan's growth as a major trade source developed from the period of the Korean Crisis sparked a phenomenal growth.

RESOURCES

This unit made numerous use of various books, periodicals, as well as one of the curriculum guides.

A History of the United States Foreign Policy, Julius W. Pratt, Prentice Hall, Inc., 1972.

Bill of Rights in Action, Published By The Constituional Rights Foundation "Bringing Democracy to Japan."

Contemporary Japan: A Teaching Workbook, "The Occupation."

"Economics in Japan: A curriculum Project," Britan Lindfors, ERIC.

Facts About Japan, "The Constitution of Japan," Public Information and Cultural Affairs Bureau, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Japan.

NEWSWEEK, "Is Japan as Rich as You Think", June 8, 1987.

SCHOLASTIC UPDATE, April 6, 1987, Volume 119, Number 15.
"Japan's Path to Economic Triumph," pages 6-8.
"Japan's Century of Rapid Progress," pages 16-18.

THE JAPANESE, Edwin O. Rauschauer, The Belnap Press of Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Masschusetts, 1981.

THE UNITED STATES AND JAPAN, 3rd Edition, Edwin O. Reischauer, Harvard Unity Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1981.

THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA, Volumes 9 and 14, 1987.

LESSON ONE

THE CONSTITUTION OF 1946

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

When the Japanese surrendered after the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagaski, the United States took steps to occupy the islands. The world looked on as the treaty ending the war was signed on the U.S.S. MISSOURI on September 2, 1945; General Douglas MacArthur then began the ambitious plans of the United States and its allies to rebuild Japan.

The first task MacArthur faced was rewriting the old Constitution of 1868, but because the Japanese were reluctant to make changes, MacArthur's own staff of six took over the task of writing a new constitution borrowing from the British as well as the United States.

LESSON OBJECTIVES

1. The students are to become knowledgeable of the similiarities between the Japanese and the American Constitutions.

2. The students shall learn why the Japanese accepted such a new format for their government.

LESSON RESOURCES

The following resources were used for this lesson:

AMERICAN CONSTITUTION An excerpt was taken from this one.

THE CONSTITUTION OF JAPAN

A HISTORY OF UNITED STATES FOREIGN POLICY Two excerpts taken from this one.

THE UNITED STATES AND JAPAN

Economics in Japan: A Curriculum Project

SCHOLASTIC UPDATE, APRIL 6, 1987.

GROUP DISCUSSION (beginning activity 5 minutes)

1. Once Japan is occupied should the Japanese government be totally abolished and replaced by American military authorities?

2. Should the United States insist that Japan change its constitutition in order to establisha democracy?

3. How would you have felt if you were Japanese? Why would you have felt that way?

TRANSPARENCY: CHART: Showing the Destruction in Japan
The Goal of the Occupation was to rebuild Japan

CONSTITUTIONS: AMERICAN AND JAPANESE
The following items would be compared:

Parlimentary System of Japan versus our Legislative Branch
Executive Powers: Prime Minister versus Chief Excutive
The role of Emperor Hirohito under the new constitution
Similarities between the Japanese Constutition and our Bill of Rights and several of our amendments.
Article 9, the clause forbidding war

BILL OF RIGHTS
"Bring Democracy to Japan "

On New Year's Day, 1946, four months after the occupation had begun, Emperor Hirohito renounced the belief that he was a divine or godlike being:

> The ties between us and our people have always stood upon mutual trust and affection. They do not depend upon mere legends and myths. They are not predicated on the false conception that the Emperor is divine and that the Japanese people are superior to other races and fated to rule the world.

These words, while shocking to most Japanese smoothed the way for the more than six years of occupation that were to come.

On the theory that democracies are pacific, the new constitution, although retaining the monarch, placed all power in the representative of the people. These were to be chosen by extremely democratic procedures, including the novelty of woman suffrage. The Emperor conformed to the new spirit. In his New Year's Rescript, January 1, 1946, he repudiated "the false conception that the Emperor is divine and that the Japanese people are superior to other races and fated to rule the world."

A HISTORY OF UNITED STATES FOREIGN POLICY

General MacArthur regal bearing and magisterial language appealed to the same Japanese traits that accounted for Emperor-worship. The people of the island submitted to his rule with surprising docility and accepted, at least superficially, reforms that revolutionized their way of life.

LESSON TWO
THE ECONOMIC, POLITICAL, AND SOCIAL REFORMS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Due to the total destruction of the industrial cities, it was easier to start with new plans to rebuild Japan through economic, political, and social areas so that Japan would become more "democratic."

LESSON OBJECTIVES

1. Students should be able to identify several of the economic reforms that were introduced during the occupation.

2. The students will be able to understand the reforms made in both the social and political sectors.

LESSON RESOURCES

The following rsources were used:

The Occupation of Japan
SCHOLASTIC MAGAZINE April 6, 1987
THE UNITED STATES AND JAPAN
Economics in Japan: A Curriculum Project
THE JAPANESE

GROUP DISCUSSION: Describe what changes were made with regard to each of the areas listed:

Women
Military Forces
Education
Large Business Conglomerates
Land Reform
Trade Unions
The Family

TRANSPARENCY FOR OVERHEAD: The Economic, Political, and Social Reforms

1. Demilitarization

a. Potsdam Conference policy of "uncoditional surrender" was not completely followed rather they pursued the policy of "follow the path of reason."
b. Colonial Possession - taken over by the United States and the Soviet Union.

c. Disappearance of the Japanese army and navy.
d. War trials: December,1948; 25 defendants who were totally responsible for the war - 7 were hanged.
e. Dissolution of all organization both militaristic and imperalistic.

2. ECONOMICS
a. Elimination of various industry: aircraft, synethic oil, synethic rubber, stopped atomic research.
b. Drastic limits on industry: steel, chemicals, machine tools.
c. Agarian reforms: absentee landowners forced to sell land to the government and non-farming landowners were forced to sell all acreage except for 2 1/2 acres.
d. Industry: (ZUIBATSU SYSTEM - giant business corporation)
1. democratize economic power further and create competion.
2. the occupation was intended to break up the giant business corporation
3. not implemented because it would have made Japan's economics more difficult
4. originally 325 corporations were to be broken up, in the end only 19 were broken up

3. POLITICAL
a. Diet became the law-making organ of the state.
b. Judiciary followed the formula used in the United States.

4. EDUCATION: opportunity to have a "real education"
a. extended compulsory education from 6 to 9 years
b. equalized all schools at all levels
c. broaden curriculum
d. changed teaching methods - removed shrines and the worship of the emperor as a god; moral and ethics were not to be taught; develop independent inquiry rather than rote or pure memory
e. control of the schools was to be in the hands of a municipal school board.
f. abandon Chinese charactersfor the Latin alphabet - ROMAJI or the "Roman Letters"

5. WOMEN
a. equality
b. change in their relationship

6. FAMILY

7. SOCIAL CLASSES - peasants and urban labor gained from the economic reforms

8. TRADE UNIONS

ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

Design a poster to promote one of the goals of the occupation.

Write a newspaper article promoting one of the goals of the occupation.

Draw 2 political cartoons:

a. from the point of view of an American citizen who disagrees with one or more of the occupation policies

b. from the point of view of a Japanese citizen who is critical of the occupational policies

LESSON 3
JAPAN ON ITS OWN

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The recovery of Japan was helped by the American aid received under the Marshall Plan as well as food sent by the United States under the United Nation's assistance program. With the reforms set up during the occupation, Japan was rebuild due to the American keeping the value of the Japanese yen low, thereby making Japanese products cheapter. The one commitment the U.S. made to defend Japan as a result of article 9 of their constitution required military bases on the island.

1950 saw both the United States and the Soviet Union pull out of Korea, within six months, the North Korean moved into South Korea; now the United States was forced to concentrate its efforts in stopping the spread of communism.

LESSON OBJECTIVES

1. The students will be able to see how Japan was able to become an active member of the world trading community.

2. The students will be able to realize that Japan was able to adopt those reforms that best suited and assimilated with their own culture.

LESSON RESOURCES

"Economics in Japan: A Curriculum Project"
THE UNITED STATES AND JAPAN
"The Occupation"
SCHOLASTIC MAGAZINE

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION: Role Playing

How would you react in the following situations:
1. as an industralist
2. as an educator
3. as a male head of a traditional family
4. as a new landowner or as an assembly line worker both earning better wages
5. as a member of a long-standing military family
6. as a woman

TRANSPARENCY: WHAT DID THE JAPANESE DO?

1. Return of the Zaibatsu System under a new class of professional managers; examples: MITSUI
MITSUBISHI

2. Leaders in the production:
manufacturing - automobiles, cameras, television, etc.
food
shipping
steel output

3. Education - came under the hands of the state

4. Korean War - United States involvement necessitated supplies from the source closes at hand - Japan

5. Constitution - attempt made to change it, but voted down in the Diet, therefore the constitution remains intact and is often referred to as the "MacArthur Constitution"

6. Popular support for the changes - willingess of the people to change

ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

GRAPHS, TABLES, CHARTS - research materials showing the growth of Japan's GNP from 1951 to 1987.

CURRENT EVENTS

1. problems facing Japan's economic system
2. economic problems that Prime Minister Yasuhiro Nakasome faces
3. "Exam Hell" Competition problems facing Japanese youth in education

Chart of destruction in Japan

I Cities destroyed

Population losses.

A. Atomic bombs

1. Hiroshima 4.7 square miles destroyed — 100,000 persons
2. Nagasaki 1.8 square miles destroyed — 40,000 persons

B. Fire bombs

1. Tokyo — 100,000 civilians burned
2. Osaka — 2/3 of population
3. Nagoya and Kobe — 1/2 of population.

II Buildings destroyed - 2,252,000

III Industry - All industry destroyed.

THE ATOMIC BOMB -- 1945

A Teaching Unit for Secondary World History Teachers

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June 5, 1987

THE ATOMIC BOMB -- 1945

Unit Introduction

In August of 1945, the most powerful and destructive weapon ever devised by man was dropped upon two heavily populated and highly industrial Japanese cities, bringing to an end the Second World War. Viewing with hindsight, most Americans tend to react to the dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in one of three ways. Some look upon the bombing as inexcusable and condemn all those who had any part in perpetrating such an act. Others accept is as a necessary act of war, perhaps brutal, but necessary. And, there are those who express no particular opinion.

This brief unit is a three day lesson (three 50 minute periods) that attempts to take students back in time to when the decision to "drop the bombs" was still in the making. It was a complex decision involving not only military, but also political, diplomatic and personal considerations. The intent is to expose students to some of the feelings expressed by American leaders regarding the use of the bomb, and what alternatives were available.

The study of this unit also attempts to make students somewhat aware of the suffering and agony experienced by the Japanese. It is hoped that students will understand that the American decision to exterminate two cities was not taken lightly. Finally, that students will have greater understanding of both Japanese and American viewpoints regarding this event in history.

Resources

This unit makes use of numerous printed accounts of individuals closely associated with the use of atomic weapons during World War II. These have been taken from Hiroshima: A Study in Science, Politics, and the Ethics of War edited by Richard H. Brown and Van R. Halsey, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Menlo Park, California, 1970. Teachers desiring more indepth resource material on the topic of the Atomic Bomb in World War II are encouraged to purchase this resource guide.

LESSON ONE
THE APPARENT CHOICE: JAPANESE VERSUS AMERICAN LIVES

Background Information

Aside from the President, the man who exercised the greatest influence in the shaping of the decision to use the bomb was then Secretary of War, Henry L. Stimson. Stimson served throughout the war and was one of the few political figures who participated in every phase of the planning and direction of the atomic bomb project.

The atomic bomb affected the lives of its victims in many different ways. In 1951, Dr. Arata Osada, a noted Japanese educator, asked many of the young people of Hiroshima to write their personal memories of that day in 1945, six years earlier, when the atomic bomb destroyed their city.

Lesson Objectives

1. Students are to become knowledgeable of the viewpoint of American leaders which influenced their decision to use nuclear weapons in the war against Japan.

2. Students should be emotionally moved by the tragic human suffering of atomic bomb victims at Hiroshima.

Lesson Resources

The following three short articles form the resources for this lesson. They have been taken from Brown and Halsey's, Hiroshima: A Study in Science, Politics, and the Ethics of War.

- The Price Hiroshima Paid: 11th grade boy; in 5th grade in 1945

- The Price Hiroshima Paid: Girl, junior college student; a teenager in 1945

- American Leader's Viewpoint: Statement by Henry L. Stimson

Questions for Discussion

1. Describe the general means by which the atomic bomb brought death to the people of Hiroshima.

2. What justification(s) did American leaders use for dropping the bomb on Japan?

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3. The girl in junior college said that as she passed a cistern immediately after the bombing, she saw many students in the water. Why do you thing they were in the water? What does this tell us about the nature of an atomic explosion?

4. Describe the young boy's reaction when he saw other victims from the bombing? How would you have reacted?

The Price Hiroshima Paid
Account of 11 year old boy; in 5th grade in 1945

I saw several people plunging their heads into a half-broken water tank and drinking the water. I was very thirsty too, and I was so happy to see some people again that without thinking I left my parent's side and went toward them. When I was close enough to see inside the tank I said, "Oh!" out loud and instinctively drew back. What I had seen in the tank were the faces of monsters reflected from the water dyed red with blood. They had clung to the side of the tank and plunged their heads in to drink, and there in that position they had died. From their burned and tattered middy blouses I could tell they were high school girls, but there was not a hair left on their heads; the broken skin of their burned faces was stained bright red with blood. I could hardly believe that these were human faces.

The Price Hiroshima Paid
Account of a girl, junior college student; a teenager in 1945

Ah, that instant! I felt as though I had been struck on the back with something like a big hammer, and thrown into boiling oil. For some time I was unconscious . . .

Through a darkness like the bottem of hell I could hear the voices of the other students calling for their mothers. I could barely sense the fact that the students seemed to be running away from that place. I immediately got up, and . . . just frantically ran in the direction they were taking . . . The place where I had been working was Tanaka-cho, a little more than 600 yards from the center of the explosion.

. . . At the base of the bridge, inside a big cistern that had been dug out there, was a mother weeping and holding above her head a naked baby that was burned bright red all over its body, and another mother was crying and sobbing as she gave her burned breast to her baby. In the cistern the students stood with only their heads above the water and their two hands, which they clasped as they imploringly cried and screamed, calling their parents. But every single person who passed was wounded, all of them, and there was no one to turn to for help . . . I looked at my two hands and found them covered with blood . . . Shocked, I put my hand into my pocket to get my handkerchief, but there was no handkerchief, no pocket either. And my dress was burned off below my hips. I could feel my face gradually swelling up . . . From inside the wreckage of the houses we could hear screaming voices calling "Help!" and then the flames would swallow up everything . . .

Even now the scars of those wounds remain over my whole body. On my hansd, my face, my arms, my legs, and my chest. As I stroke those blackish red raised scars on my arms, and everytime I look in a mirror at this face of mine which is

not like my face, and think that never again will I be able to see my former face and that I have to live my life forever in this condition, it becomes too sad to bear . . .

An American Leader's Viewpoint: Statement by Henry L. Stimson

The principal political, social, and military objective of the United States in the summer of 1945 was the prompt and complete surrender of Japan. Only the complete destruction of her military power could open the way to lasting peace.

Japan, in July 1945, had been seriously weakened by our increasingly violent attacks . . . There was as yet no indication of any weakening in the Japanese determination to fight rather than accept unconditional surrender. If she should persist in her fight to the end, she had still a great military force.

In the middle of July 1945, the intelligence section of War Department General Staff estimated Japanese military strength as follows: in the home islands, slightly under 2,000,000; in Korea, Manchuria, China proper, and Formosa, slightly over 2,000,000; in French Indo-China, Thailand, and Burma, over 200,000; in the East Indies area, including the Phillipines, over 500,000; in the by-passed Pacific islands, over 100,00. The total strength of the Japanese army was estimated at about 5,000,000 men. These estimates later proved to be in very close agreement with official Japanese figures.

The Japanese Army was in much better condition than the Japanese Navy and Air Force. The Navy had practically ceased to exsit except as a harrying force against an invasion fleet. The Air Force had been reduced mainly to reliance upon kamikaze, or suicide attacks. These latter, however, had already inflicted serious damage on our seagoing forces, and their possible effectiveness in a last ditch fight was a matter of real concern to our naval leaders.

As we understood it in July, there was a very strong possibility that the Japanese government might determine upon resistance to the end, in all the areas of the Far East under its control. In such an event, the Allies would be faced with the enormous task of destroying an armed force of five million men and five thousand suicide aircraft, belonging to a race which had already amply demonstrated its ability to fight literally to the death.

The strategic plans of our armed forces for the defeat of Japan, as they stood in July, had been prepared without reliance upon the atomic bomb, which had not been tested in New Mexico. We were planning an intensfied sea and air blockade, and greatly intensfied strategic air bombing, through the summer and early fall, to be followed on November 1 by an invasion of the southern island of Kyushu.

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This would be followed in turn by an invasion of the main island of Honshu in the Spring of 1946. The total U.S. military and naval force involved in this grand design was of the order of 5,000,000 men; if all those indirectly concerned were included, it was larger still.

We estimated that if we should be forced to carry this plan to its conclusion, the major fighting would not end until the latter part of 1946, at the earliest. I was informed that such operations might be expected to cost over a million causalties, to American forces alone. Additional large losses might be expected among our allies, and of course, if our campaign were successful and if we could judge by previous experience, enemy casualities would be much larger than our own . . .

The New Mexico test occurred while we were at Potsdam, on July 16. It was immediately clear than the power of the bomb measured up to our highest estimates . . .

Hirshomia was bombed on August 6, and Nagasaki on August 9. These two cities were active working parts of the Japanese war effort. One was an army center; the other was naval and industrial. Hiroshima was the headquarters of the Japanese Army defending sourthern Japan and was a major military storage and assembly point . . . We believed that our attacks had struck cities which must certainly be important to the Japanese military leaders, both army and navy, and we waited for a result. We waited one day . . .

After a prolonged Japanese Cabinet session in which the deadlock was broken by the Emperor himself, the offer to surrender was made on August 10 . . . Our great objective was thus achieved, and all the evidence I have seen indicates that the controlling factor in the final Japanese decision to accept our terms of surrender was the atomic bomb . . .

My chief purpose was to end the war in victory and with the least possible cost in the lives of the men in the armies which I had helped to raise. In the light of the alternatives which, on a fair estimate, were open to us I believe that no man, in our position and subject to our responsibilities, holding in his hand a weapon of such possibilities for accomplishing this purpose and saving those lives, could have failed to use it and afterwards looked his countrymen in the face . . .

The face of war is the face of death; death is an inevitable part of every order that a wartime leader gives. The decision to use the atomic bomb was a decision that brought death to over a hundred thousand Japanese. No explanation can change that fact and I do not wish to gloss over it. But this deliberate, pre-mediated destruction was our least abhorrent choice. The destruction of Hiroshima and Nagasaki put an end to the Japanese war. It stopped the fire raids, and the strangling blockade; it ended the ghastly specter of a clash of great land armies . . .

LESSON TWO
THE AMERICAN CALL FOR UNCONDITIONAL SURRENDER AND THE JAPANESE SPIRIT TO FIGHT TO THE DEATH

Background Information

Almost at once after American entry into the war in December 1941, a curcial strategic choice had to be made. Should the main American effort be directed against Germany or Japan? After heated debate, it was decided that Germany was the more dangerous enemy and must be crushed first. In the meantime, only limited operations could be carred out against Japan.

This strategy produced the "island hopping" campaign in the Pacific theater. Step by step for three years, the Americans fought their way across the Pacific in a two pronged offensive converging on Japan from Hawaii and Australia, using the Japanese-occupied islands of the south and central Pacific as stepping stones. Compared with the huge armies engaged in the European theatre, the battles for these islands involved relatively small numbers of men, but they produced some of the most vicious fighting in all the annals of warfare. This agonizing experience, and the grim prospect of what might lie ahead, bore heavily upon American leaders in 1945 as they sought the best way to end the Japanese war.

Early in 1945 a tiny volcanic island named Iwo Jima, only 750 miles south of Tokyo, was selected as the target for the next step of the American island-hopping campaign. The result was the costliest battle in 168 years of U.S. Marine Corps history. Nearly 20,000 men of the two attacking Marine divisions became casualties in less than one month of fighting.

Lesson Objectives

1. Students should be able to describe the Japanese spirit of loyalty and willingness to fight to the death.

2. Students should be able to identify some reasons why the Japanese were such determined soldiers.

Lesson Resources

The following short articles form the resources for this lesson. They have been taken from Brown and Halsey's, Hiroshima: A Study in Science, Politics, and the Ethics of War.

- War Correspondent's View of Fighting on Iwo Jima

- Japanese Prisoners of War on Okinawa

- Effect of Kamikaze Pilots on U.S. Naval Fleet in Okinawa

- Japanese Plan of Attack Should America Invade Japan

- A Kamikaze Pilot Writes his Last Letter Home

Questions for Discussion

1. How fierce was the fighting on Iwo Jima?

2. What kind of warriors were the Japanese?

3. What was the major kind of Japanese casuality? What reasons can you suggest for this?

4. How many prisoners of war were taken on Okinawa? Why do you suppose there were so few?

5. How serious a threat were the kamikaze aircraft to American military operations in the Pacific? Why?

6. What was the Japanese attitude toward suicide in battle? Did the kamikaze pilots display radical fanaticism or the highest form of patriotism? Justify your answer.

7. Suppose you had an older brother fighting in the Pacific against the Japanese, how would you have felt about the fighting ability of the Japanese?

War Correspondent's View of Fighting on Iwo Jima

Whether the dead were Japs [sic] or Americans, they had one thing in common; they had died with the greatest possible violence. No where in the Pacific war had I seen such badly mangled bodies. Many were cut squarely in half. Legs and arms lay fifty feet away from any body. In one spot on the sand, far from the nearest cluster of dead, I saw a string of guts 15 feel long. Only legs were easy to identify; they were Jap if wrapped in Khaki puttees, American if covered by canvas leggings. The smell of burning flesh was heavy in some areas.

What the Japs succeed in doing was this: They built underground so well that they all but nullfiied our superior firepower. We could bomb and shell until our guns sizzled and our pilots dropped . . . But when our barrage lifted and our infantry advanced, the Japs were back in position, firing their machine guns and mortars.

At times it was agonizing to realize that we progressed so slowly at so high a price, in spite of our superior strength. For all our technical skill, we had on Iwo no method and no weapon to counteract the enemy's underground defense. The Japs made us fight on their own terms. We could beat them on there own terms; we could kill four for one; we could make them take as many casualties as we took (and their casualties were nearly all dead). But the men fighting on Iwo Jima frankly thought that price too high. The Japs didn/t seem to mind dying; we preferred to live.

. . . The hopes we had of a quick victory melted away slowly. One day it seemed that only a few more days would be required; next day it seemed that surely a break would come somewhere; a week later our progress was still being measured 50 yards, 100 yards, 300 yards, at a time . . . The Japs stayed in their tunnels and their molehills to the deathly end, and we had to go in and dig them out or burn them out or seal them in. There was nothing else for us to do. It was brave men against Jap cunning and Jap steel.

(note: Iwo Jima was followed by the battle of Okinawa, April-June 1945, which was planned as the last step before the expect invasion of Japan.)

Japanese Prisoners of War on Okinawa

Nothing illustrates so well the great difference between the fighting in the Pacific and that in Europe as the small number of military prisoners taken on Okinawa. At the end of May, the III Amphibious Corps had captured only 128 Japanese soldiers. At the same time, after two months of fighting in southern Okinawa, the four divisions of the XXIV Corps had taken only 90 military prisoners. The 77th Division, which had been in the center of the line . . . had taken only 9 during all that time. Most of the enemy taken prisoner either were badly wounded or were unconscious; they

could not prevent capture or suicide before falling into American hands.

In the light of these prisoner figures, there is no question as to the state of Japanese morale. The Japanese soldier fought until he was killed. There was only one kind of Japanese casualty -- the dead.

Casualities on the American side were the heaviest of the Pacific war.

(note: That which follows is a U.S. naval historian's description of the effect of Japanese suicide planes on the U.S. fleet at Okinawa)

Effect of Kamikaze Pilots on U.S. Naval Fleet in Okinawa

From the beginning, Japanese bombers and suicide planes made sporadic attacks on the American ships off Okinawa. On March 31, a kamikaze crashed into Spruance's flagship Indianapolis, releasing a bomb that penetrated several decks and blew two holes in her hull. While Spruance transferred his flag to the old battleship New Mexico, the Indianapolis was patched up in the Kerama anchorage and then headed for Mare Island Navy Yard for extensive repairs. On April 4 a crashing kamikaze so mangled a destroyer- transport that she had to be sunk. By April 5, Japanese bombers and suicide planes had succeed in damaging 39 naval vessels, including two old battleships, three cruisers, and an escort carrier. These raids, however, were mere preliminaries to the general counterattack which the Imperial Army and Navy, acting for the first time in really close concert launched on April 6. On the Morning of the 6th, a Japanese reconnaissance plane sighted TF 58 east of Okinawa. Shortly afterwards, 355 kamikaze pilots in old aricraft rigged for suicide attack began taking of from airfields in Kyushu. TF 58 was an entire U.S. naval fleet.

Frist and persistently attacked by the kamikazes were the outlying picket vessels, which early in the campaign generally had only their own guns to protect themselves. In mid-afternoon on the 6th, suicide planes swarmed down on the destroyer Bush on picket patrol north of Okinawa and made three hits. The destroyer Colhoun, patrolling in the adjacent station rushed to the support of the damaged Bush and was herself crashed by three kamikazes. Both destroyers began to sink . . . the enemy planes damaged 22 naval vessels [on the 6th], sank a destroyer-transport and an LST, and demonlished two loaded ammunition ships, leaving the Tenth Army short of certain types of shells.

On April 7 a kamikaze at last penetrated the TF 58 air patrol and crased into the deck of the carrier Hancock, killing 43 men. By nightfall, suicide planes had damaged four more naval vessels. The April 6-7 raid was only the first of ten general kamikaze attacks launched against the

fleet and shipping off Okinawa. Smaller-scale suicide and conventional air raids occurred nearly every day . . .

Nearly 13,000 Americans had been killed, of whom 3,400 were marines and 4,900 were navy. In the fleet, most of the casualities among ships and men were the result of enemy air attack, chiefly by suicide planes. By air attack alone, 15 naval vessels were sunk, none larger than a destroyer, and more that 200 damaged . . .

(note: Under interrogation by American officers after the War, two top-ranking officers of the Japanese Air Force explained Japan's plan for meeting the expected Allied invasion of Japan [planned by the Americans for November 1]. Following is their account)

Japan Plan of Attack Should America Invade Japan

Lieutenant General Tazoe:

The air force plan was to attack the Allied fleet by kamikaze planes, and for that prupose the full air force led by the commanding general was made ready to destroy the Allied ships near the shore. We expected annihilation of our entire air force, but we felt that it was our duty. The army and navy each had 4,000 to 5,000 planes for this purpose. Of this force, waves of 300-400 planes at the rate of one wave per hour for each of the army and navy would have been used to oppose a landing on Kyushu.

We thought we could win the war by using kamikaze planes on the ships offshore; the ground forces would handle those which got through. The army could not put out effective resistance without the air arm, but we intended doing the best we could even if we perished. The entire navy and army air forces volunteered as kamikaze and there was sufficient fuel for these attacks.

Based on the Leyte and Okinawa experiences, it was contemplated that one out of four planes of the 8,000-9,000 available for special attack would sink or damage an Allied ship . . .

The air army general had been following a policy of conserving aircraft for the purpose or countering the expected invasion . . . We had 5,000 pilots with enough experience for special attack against invasion and 3,000 more in training . . .

General Kawabe:

I know that you in the United States found it more difficult to manufacture crews than planes and did everything possible to rescue the crews, but our strategy was aimed solely at the destruction of your fleet and transport fleet when it landed in Japan. It was not very difficult to manufacture second-rate planes, that is, makeshift planes, and it was not difficult to train pilots

for just such a duty; and since pilots were willing, we had no shortage of volunteers . . .

But, I wish to explain something, which is very difficult and which you may not understand. The Japanese, to the very end, believed that by spiritual means they could fight on equal terms with you, yet by another comparison it would not appear equal. We believed our spiritual confidence in victory would balance any scientific advantages and we had no intention of giving up the fight.

You call our kamikaze attacks suicide attacks. This is a misnomer and we feel badly about your calling them suicide attacks. They were in no sense suicide. The pilot did not start out on his mission with the intention of committing suicide. He looked upon himself as a human bomb which would destroy a certain part of the enemy fleet for his country. They considered it a glorious thing, which suicide may not be so glorious.

A Kamikaze Pilot Writes his Last Letter Home

Do not weep because I am about to die. If I were to live and one of my dear ones to die, I would do all in my power to cheer those who remain behind. I would try to be brave.

11:30 am -- the last morning. I shall now have breakfast and then go to the aerodrome. I am busy with my final briefing and have not time to write any more. So I bid you farewell.

Excuse this illegible letter and the jerky sentences.

Keep in good health.

I believe in the victory of Greater Asia.

I pray for the happiness of you all, and I beg your forgiveness for my lack of piety.

I leave for the attack with a smile on my face. The moon will be full tonight. As I fly over the open sea off Okinawa I will choose the enemy ship that is to be my target.

I will show you that I know how to die bravely.

Will all my respectful affection,

Akio Otsuka

LESSON THREE
WERE THERE ALTERNATIVES TO THE BOMB?
THE DEBATE AMONG TOP AMERICAN LEADERS

Background Information

In the spring and summer of 1945, as the War approached its final stages, a momentous controversy boiled among America's military leaders. The Army on one side, and the Navy and Air Force on the other, put forth opposing views as to the best way to defeat Japan. The question as to whether or not we would use the atomic bomb depended on the outcome of this dispute.

Lesson Objectives

1. Students should be able to state two or three U.S. alternatives that were considered for ending the War without resorting to atomic bombs.

2. Students should acquire an understanding of the decision making process among American leaders during this period.

3. Students should be able to explain Truman's reasons for electing to use the bomb against Japan.

Lesson Resources

The following short articles form the resources for this lesson. They have been taken from Brown and Halsey's, Hiroshima: A Study in Science, Politics, and the Ethics of War.

- Viewpoint of General George C. Marshall, Army Chief of Staff

- Viewpoint of General Douglas MacArthur, Army Commander in the Pacific

- Viewpoint of Admiral William D. Leahy, Naval Advisor to President Truman

- Viewpoint of Truman while at Potsdam

Questions for Discussion

1. What was the nature of the disagreement among American leaders on how to end the war? How and why did it arise? How was it resolved?

2. What were some of the options for ending the War without use of the atomic bomb? Do you think these options would have worked? Justify your answer.

3. What assumptions about the Japanese influenced these American leaders in their opinions about how to best end the War?

4. Why did Truman ultimately decide to use the atomic bomb?

5. Do you think the final decision to use the bomb was the most logical choice of alternatives to end the War? Why?

Viewpoint of General George C. Marshall, Army Chief of Staff
June 18, 1945

General Marshall said that it was his personal view that the operations against Kyushu [a planned land invasion] was the only course to pursue. He felt that air power alone was not sufficient to put the Japanese out of the war. It was unable to put the Germans out . . Against the Japanese, scattered throughout mountainous country, the problem would be much more difficult that it had been against Germany. He felt that this plan offered the only way the Japanese could be forced into a feeling of utter helplessness.

Viewpoint of General Douglas MacArthur, Army Commander in the Pacific

On April 12, General Marshall asked my views as to the future Pacific operations . . .

I replied on April 20 strongly recommending a direct attack on the Japanese mainland at Kyushu for the purpose of securing airfields to cover the main assault on Honshu . . . I recommended a target date of November 1.

Viewpoint of Admiral William D. Leahy, Naval Advisor to President Truman

By the beginning of September [1944], Japan was almost defeated through a practically complete sea and air blockade. However, a proposal was made by the Army to force a surrender of Japan by an amphibious invasion on the main islands through the Island of Kyushu. This was discussed at length by the Joint Chiefs of Staff but a final decision was not reached.

The JCS did authorize the preparation of plans for an invasion, but the invasion itself was never approved. The Army did not appear to be able to understand that the Navy, with some Army air assistance, already had defeated Japan. The Army not only was planning a huge land invasion of Japan, but was convinced that we needed Russian assistance as well to bring the war against Japan to a successful conclusion.

It did not appear to me that under the then existing conditions there was any necessity for the great expenditure of life involved in a ground force attack on the numerically superior Japanese Army in its home territory. My conclusion, with which the naval representatives agreed, was that America's least expensive course of actions was to continue and intenisfy the air and sea blockade and at the same time to occupy the Phillipines.

I believed that a completely blockaded Japan would then fall by its own weight. Consensus of opinion of the Chiefs

of Staff supported this proposed strategy, and President Roosevelt approved . . .

[Under pressure of events during the next nine months, however, this consensus broke up.] The President [Truman] approved the Kyushu operation and withheld for later consideration a general invasion of Japan. The Army seemed determined to occupy and govern Japan by military government as was being done in Germany. I was unable to see any justification, from a national defense point of view, for an invasion of an already thoroughly defeated Japan. I feared that the cost would be enormous in both lives and treasure.

In the spring of 1945, President Truman directed Mr. Byrnes [Secretary of State] to make a special study of their status and prospects of the new atomic explosive on which two billion dollars already had been spent. Byrnes came to my home on the evening of June 4 to discuss his findings. He was more favorably impressed than I had been up to that time with the prospects of success in the final development and use of the new weapon.

Once it had been tested, Present Truman faced the decision as to whether to use it. He did not like the idea, but was persuaded that it would shorten the war against Japan and save American lives. It was my opinion that the use of this barbarous weapon at Hiroshima and Nagasaki was of no material assistnace in or war against Japan. The Japanese were already defeated and ready to surrender because of the effective sea blockade and the successful bombing with conventional weapons.

Viewpoint of Truman while at Potsdam

When the message came to Potsdam that a successful atomic explosion had taken place in New Mexico, there was much excitement and conversation about the effect on the war then in progress with Japan.

The next day I told the Prime Minister of Great Britain and Generalissimo Stalin that the explosion had been a success. The British Prime Minister understood and appreciated what I'd told him. Premier Stalin smiled and thanked me for reporting the explosion to him, but I'm sure he did not understand its significance.

I called a meeting of the Secretary of State Mr. Byrnes, the Secretary of War, Mr. Stimson, Admiral Leahy, General Marshall, General Eisenhower, Admiral King and some others, to dicuss what should be done with this awful weapon.

I asked General Marshall what it would cost in lives to land on the Tokio plain and other places in Japan. It was his opinion that such an invasion would cost at a minimum one quarter of a million casualties, and might cost as much as a million, on the American side alone, with an equal number of the enemy. The other military and naval men present agreed.

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I asked Secretary Stimson which cities in Japan were devoted exclusively to war production. He promptly named Hiroshima and Nagasaki, among others.

We sent an ultimatum to Japan. It was rejected.

I ordered atomic bombs dropped on the two cities named on the way back from Potsdam, when were were in the middle of the Atlantic ocean . . .

Dropping the bombs ended the war, saved lives, and gave the free nations a chance to face the facts.

What's What in the Japanese Economy and What Does It Have To Do with the UNITED STATES of AMERICA?

A Teaching Unit with Readings

日本 エコノミックス

SOUTHWEST PROJECT FOR TEACHING
ABOUT JAPAN
College of Education
Texas Tech University
Lubbock, Texas 79409

Dr. Duane Christian
Project Director

by

Larry R. Oliverson, Ph.D

June 12, 1987

ラリー オリバーソン

jū ni nichi Roku-gatsu

A TEACHING UNIT ON THE ECONOMIC SYSTEM IN JAPAN

INTRODUCTION

This unit on the Japanese economic system can be taught as part of, or in conjunction with a general economics course, or as part of a political science course which includes some emphasis on economics. It is designed for use at the secondary level, primarily at the 11th and 12th grade level. With relatively minor modification, this unit can serve as the basis for an introductory college level teaching unit used as part of a comparative economics course. This unit assumes three characteristics of the student learner: (1) that he or she has had course in the social sciences (e.g. history) during which he or she was exposed to significant countries and cultures in the orient in general, and to Japan (Nippon), specifically; (2) that the student learner has an introductory of basic understanding of the principles of economics (e.g. law of supply and demand, factors of production, etc.) and knows the difference(s) between a free enterprise/market economy and a command economy; and (3) that the ability-motivational level of the students will range from basic/minial to advanced. The materials in this unit, therefore, consist of simple, fundamental readings and learning activities as well as advanced, self-directed readings and suggested references with associated learning activities more in step with advanced honors or advanced placement (AP) course work. The content and objectives are arranged and sequenced according to Bloom's Taxonomy or learning. This calls for a fund of knowledge ranging from simple concrete recall up to synthesis and advanced critical thinking skills.

Special note.
Inasmuch as these materials involve an indepth comparison of the U.S. economy and free enterprise system with the Japanses system (i.e. sucesses, failures, future developments), the teacher may expect some degree of resistance from students who may hold traditional ideologies and ethnocentric views.

The teacher may expect to use 3-4 class periods on this unit. However the time parameters will depend on several factors. The teacher will need to select the essential learning element(s) to be emphasized.

This unit contains several general and specific readings on the economic system in Japan. The reader must understand clearly, the cultural and political underpinnings of the Japanese economic sustem because it can most accurately be described as a mixed political economic system consisting of free enterprise (capitalism) and governmentally developed industry and social services. With this general social systems approach, the teacher can better set the tone for this unit and focus student learning on both the contextual and contemporary status of the Japanese economy internally, and in relation to the U.S. and the world econony.

The readings and the suggested references are good examples of materials available to the reacher and student learner, however, these should not be considered inclusive or exhaustive.

Learning Objectives

Given a set of readings and special class instruction (see enclosures), the student learner shall be able to master eight of the following objectives.

1. Able to name the four principal islands of Japan and describe the general geographical characteristics of this nation.
2. Identify the principal geographical characteristics of this nation specific to its social-economic development.
3. Identify the principal nations of the Pacific Rim and compare the level of production in this region to that in the United States specific to balance of trade (exports and imports).
4. Describe the main characteristics to the Japanese political-economic system.
5. Identify the basic money system in Japan, and state the currency exchange ratio to the U.S. dollar.
6. Describe the principal characteristics of the "typical" middle-class Japanese family specific to economic standard of living conditions and work ethics.
7. List and explain the principal reasons for the succes of the Japanese economy using the main factors of production (land, labor, capital, and management) as the primary considerations.
8. List potential limits to the continued growth of the Japanese economy and possible changes in the standard of living and quality of life conditions in this nation.
9. Identify the principal similarities and differences in the current U.S. and Japanese economies. List global economic indicators having potential impact on the interdepentent economies of these two nations.
10. State 2-3 projections for the future economic development in the U.S. and Japan.

A Working Outline & Study Guide

1. The four principal islands of Japan and their geographical characteristics:
   a. Hokkaido
   b. Honshu
   c. Shikoku
   d. Kyushu

2. Principal geographical characteristics specific to social-economic development, and, demographic characteristics:
   a. the land and mountains
   b. the island empire
   c. the waters and ocean
   d. the natural resources
   e. demographic characteristics (population, density, etc.)
   f. ideology and social values.

3. Pacific Rim nations, and trade relations with the United States:
   a. Japan
   b. South Korea
   c. Taiwan
   d. Hong Kong
   e. Singapore
   f. Indonesia
   g. Malaysia
   h. Philippines
   i. Thailand
   Special mention: USSR, China, and Aurtralia

4. Characteristics of the Japanese political-economic system:
   a. mixed economy
   b. government developed v. regulated industry
   c. social services and education
   d. high rates of savings and investments
   e. protectionist policies
   f. labor management relations
   g. low defense spending as percent of GNP
   h. value of the Yen
   i. development of principal industries and transportation system
   j. communications

5. The Japanese money and money system: (Suggestion: show Yen to class.)
   a. fiat money concept
   b. exchange rate (give examples for consumer spending); support of U.S. dollar

6. The Japanese family and its standard of living and work ethics:
   a. quality of life conditions
   b. education and juku
   c. productivity ethics
   d. changes

Outline, continued

7. Principal reasons for success of Japanese economy
   a. Brief history
   b. Post World War II conditions
   c. Work Ethic
   d. Land and natural resources
   e. Quality controls emphasis and techniques
   f. Availability of capital (bank finance & savings- investments vs. stocks)
   g. Michi visions and the Ministry of International Trade and Industry.
   h. You've gotta have "wa" and other management practices
   i. Economies of scale and sysytematic production/productivity
   j. Low Defense spending
   k. Consumer spending habits and quality of life/standard of living trade-offs.
   l. Patent purchases (i.e. right to use new, foreign technologies)
   m. Export-oriented economic practices
   n. Protectionism and quasi-protectionistic practices
   o. Relative stable political period with conservative, business oriented Liberal Democratic Political party in charge.

8. Limits to Growth?
   a. Changing values in work ethic, youth culture, and consummerism
   b. Value of the Yen and its impact on world trade
   c. Changes in primary and manufacturing industry(ies)
   d. Rapid shift to service economy
   e. Rise of other Pacific Rim national economies
   f. Balance of trade conflicts
   g. Shinjinrui attitudes and behaviors
   h. Third World, Lesser Developed Countries Economies and Debts
   i. Energy costs and transportation sustems
   j. Soviet interests and Japan
   k. National and international security expenditures.

9. Principal similarities and differrences in the U.S. and Japanese Economies
   a. Similarities
      1. Mixed economies, generally with emphasis on free enterprise
      2. Mistrust of Soviet and Communistic systems
      3. Interdependent, competitors
      4. We are Japanese, they are Western.
   b. Differences (currently)
      1. Quality in all factors of Production by Japan vs. U.S.
      2. Use of governmental incentives and development planning
      3. Employment/unemployment
   c. Global indicators and impact on world trade and balance of payments.
      1. Shifts in China's economic planning
      2. European Common Market Practices
      3. Middle East oil production and distribution
      4. Soviet Union practices
      5. Third World stability/instability

10. What about the FUTURE?

Evaluation Methods

Evaluation methods will depend on teacher preferences. Multiple choice and other pen & paper test items can be developed to measure student-learner understanding of the readings specific to the unit objectives. Small group simulation exercises can be used. For example, students could "produce" an economic-trade agreement for the USA and Japan. Students could "market" goods and services (based on realistic research and appraisal of worth) made in the USA v. Japanese products. Other discussion & debate contests could be conducted. In these methods, the teacher and student-learner can check for understanding of the main ideas and supporting details (i.e. basic facts) and demonstrate level(s) of understanding from simple recall to analysis and synthesis of information

Sample Questions?

What have been some of the reasons for the success of the Japanese Economy? Do you think this success will continue?

What have been some of the reasons for the relative slow down in the U.S. economy for each of the factors of production? Mention the issue of quality. Do you believe the U.S. system can return to "top form?"

How can Nippon and the USA work together to solve their mutual problems? And what might be the reaction in the rest of the world to a strong (powerful) U.S. - Nippon alliance.

Do you think you could/could not be happy living as the "other family?" What would you expecially like and dislike about living as a Middle Class family member in Japan.

If we would have been "wiser" and less ethnocentric, do you think the war with Japan (i.e. WWII) could have been prevented? Yes? No? Why? How?

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Annuals Recommended for comprehensive, current, statistical and other facts.

The Statesman's Year Book. Statistical and Historical Annual of the States of the World. John Paxton, ED. 1986-87.

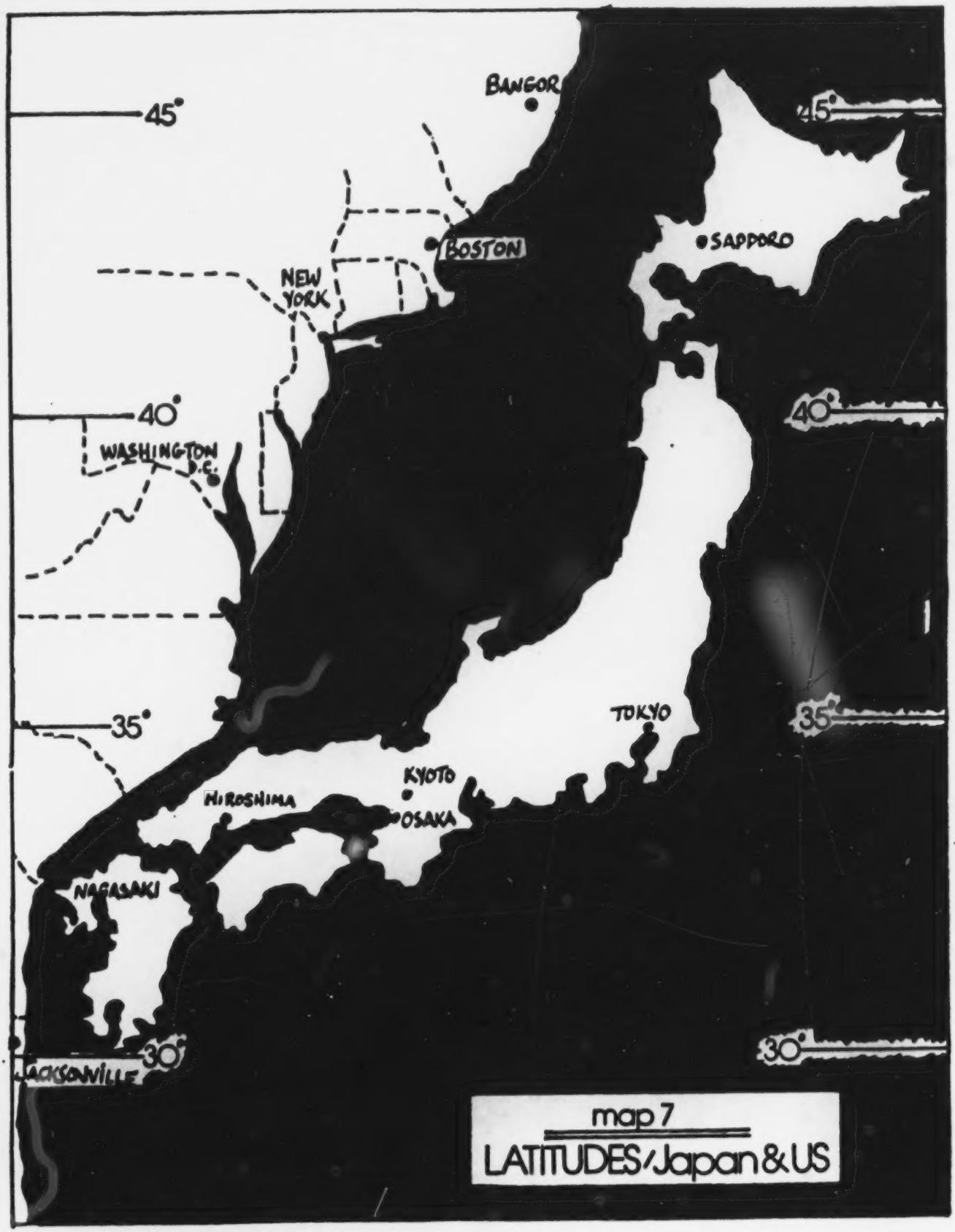
The Europa Yearbook. A World Survey. International Organizations.

The Encyclopedia Americana. International Edition.

Audio-Visual Aids.

Available through:
Consulate General of Japan at Houston
5420 Allied Bank Plaza
1000 Louisiana St.
Houston, TX. 77002
(713) 652-2977

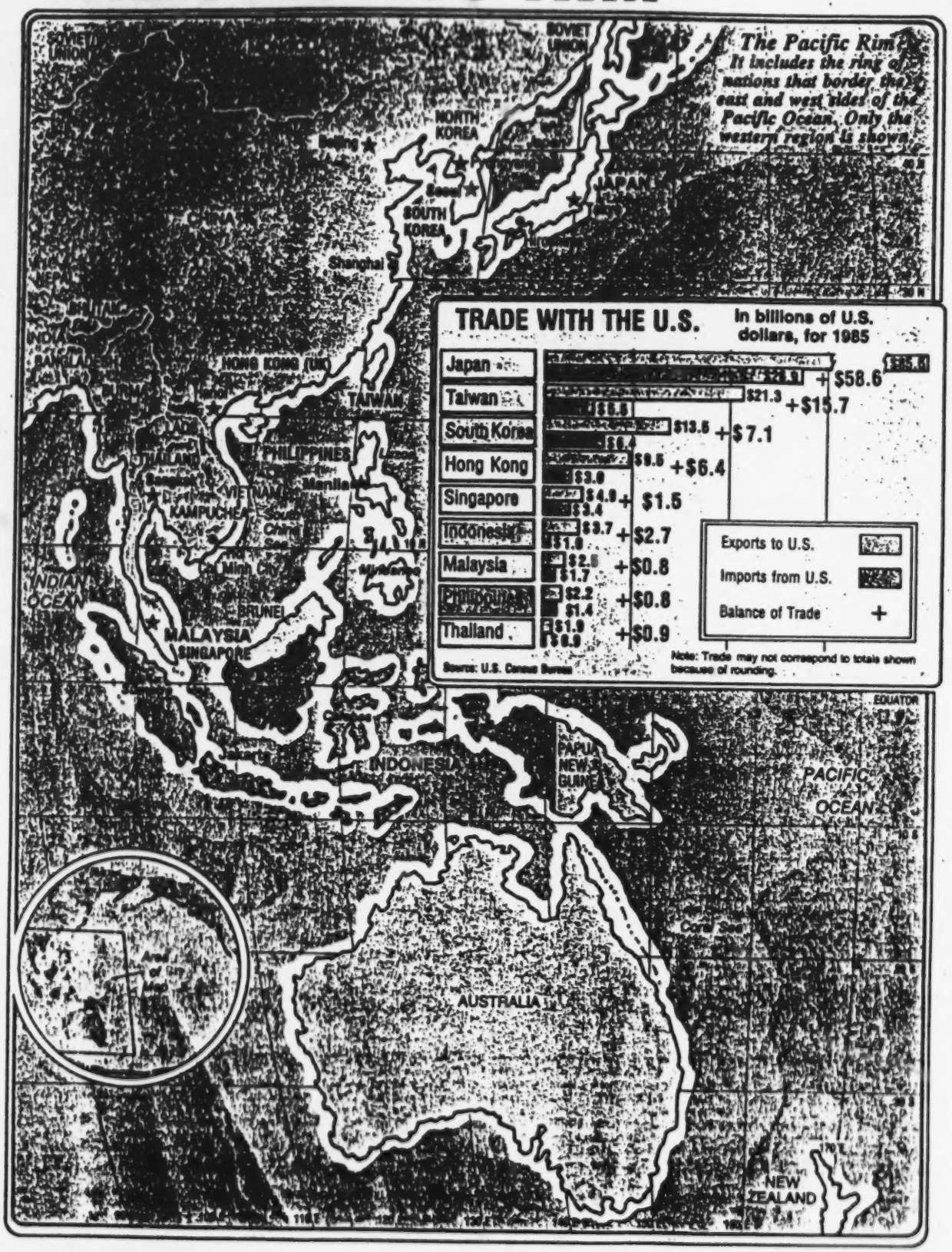
Additional Information and Assistance through:
Southwest Project for Teaching About Japan
Texas Tech University
College of Education
Lubbock Texas 79409.
c/o Drs. Duane Christian or Bruce O. Barker.



map 7

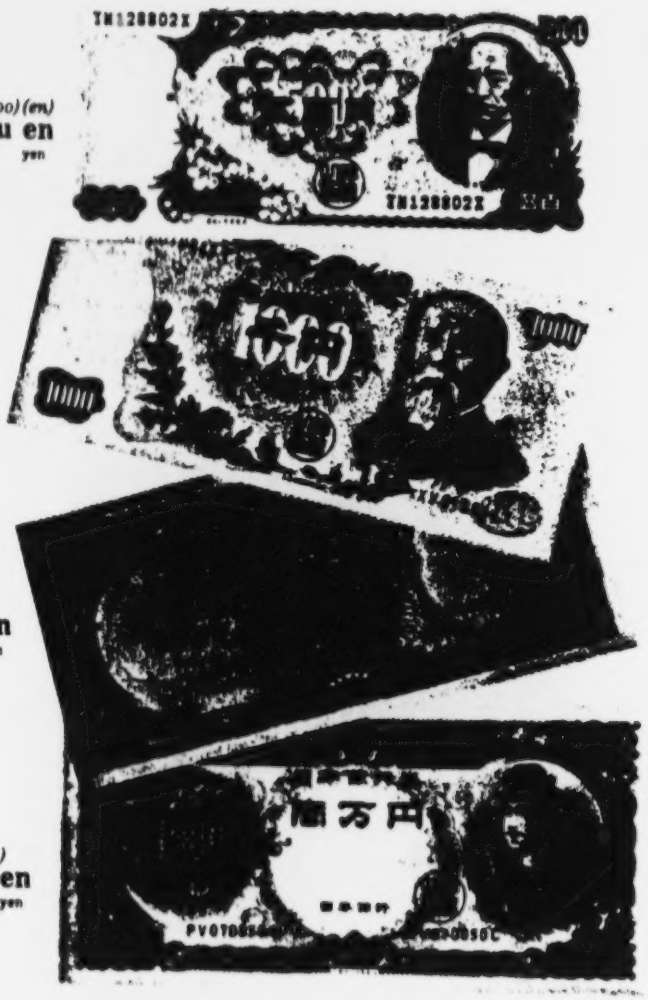
LATITUDES / Japan & US

THE PACIFIC RIM



The unit of currency in **Nihon** (nee-hohn) Japan is the **en** (en) yen, abbreviated ¥. Bills are called **satsu** (sah-tsoo) and coins are called **kōka** (kōh-kah). Whereas an American **doru** (doh-doo) dollar can be broken down into 100 pennies, a 500 **en** (en) **satsu** (sah-tsoo) yen bill can be divided into 500 **ichi** (ee-chee) one **en** (en) yen **kōka** (kōh-kah) coins. (You will also hear **dama** (dah-mah) used in place of **kōka**.) Let's learn the various kinds of **satsu** (sah-tsoo) **to** (toh) and **kōka** (kōh-kah). Always be sure to practice each **tango** out loud. You might want to exchange some money now so that you can familiarize yourself with the various **satsu to kōka**. and

Satsu (sah-tsoo)



(goh-hyah-koo) (en)
gohyaku en
500 yen

(sen)
sen en
1000

(goh-sen)
gosen en
5000 yen

(ee-chee-mahn)
ichiman en
10,000 yen

Kōka (kōh-kah)

(ee-chee)
ichi en
one yen

(goh)
go en
five yen

(jōō)
jū en
10

(goh-jōō)
gojū en
50 yen

(hyah-koo)
hyaku en
100 yen